The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 21, 1897.

The Week.

The extraordinary character of the foreign trade of the United States this season may best be judged by comparing the September export and import statement with that for the same month in other years of heavy exports. In September, 1891, the outward trade in breadstuffs was extremely heavy. Wheat exports in particular ran closely on a level with the "famine month" of September, 1879, and with the current season. Yet in September, 1891, our excess of exports over imports was less by $36,500,000 than it was last month. The nine months ending with September, 1891, showed total net merchandise exports of $10,177,509; the excess of exports up to September's close this year is $157,639,393. For this remarkable showing there is again a double cause: enormous and continuous increase in our exports, and similar slackening in our import trade. It is, moreover, worthy of careful notice that export of manufactures is not slackening at all. In August, for example, shipment of iron and steel goods increased nearly a million dollars over 1896. Meantime the import trade has actually fallen to the lowest autumn level of the present generation. In September there was received in merchandise from abroad $8,400,000 less than even in 1896, when the paralysis of the trade was attracting wide attention. Many of the causes of this extraordinary decrease have no connection with the excessive importations of last summer, but reflect a permanent and not discouraging change in the nature of our industrial situation. But the framers of the Dingley law were either totally ignorant of these changed conditions, or else snapped their fingers at them. With dutiable importations of the entire United States nearly 25 per cent. less last month than they were a year ago, and less by 41 per cent. than they were in September, 1895, the pitiful showing of the federal revenue will astonish nobody.

Mr. Dingley rises to explain, in his paper, the Lewiston *Journal*, about the woful failure of his estimate of $10,000,000 a year from his "personal effects" tax. He now admits that the revenue from that source may not exceed $1,000,000; but his estimate was not at all a failure, and this for two reasons. In the first place, his estimate was "simply a reiteration" of what somebody had told him; so you must catch the other fellow. No responsibility, it is clear, can attach to a chairman of the ways and means committee who simply reiterates what others tell him. That is what he is there for. As a matter of fact, we suppose Mr. Dingley can evade all his predictions and all his taxes in that way. They were not his. He simply prophesied and taxed as he was told to. But he has another defence. His estimate of $10,000,000 was meant to be taken as revenue resulting either "directly or indirectly." There is the sly catch. Mr. Dingley was reckoning in not only what would be actually collected, but what would have been collected if the $40,000,000 of free goods, "mainly luxuries," brought in by returning tourists, had only gone on manfully coming in and had paid duty. This should hereafter figure in the Treasury statements. For example, the deficit up to date is $34,746,000, but it should be added that this does not reckon in the $9,000,000 which is constructively, or "indirectly," in the Treasury through Mr. Dingley's baggage tax.

The Commissioner of Pensions is the latest official at Washington to say that he, too, must have more money. Why not? Mr. McKinley's message urging the Dingley bill specifically demanded "ample" revenues for the sake of increased pensions. To be sure the revenues are not turning out exactly ample; October is evidently in for a $10,000,000 deficit, and the total running behind will be about $45,000,000, apparently, by the time Congress meets; but what difference does that make? We trust that a great party which put down a gigantic rebellion and ran in debt to the tune of $2,500,000,000, is not going to mind a little deficit like that. At any rate, as Commissioner Evans says, the pensions go on piling up, no matter what happens to the revenue. He has spent $3,000,000 more than his predecessor. He would like to cut down the total below $142,000,000 a year, but doesn't see any way to do it unless Congress will legislate to prevent young women from marrying old soldiers and so getting on the pension list for life. The fatal objection to this is, as Mr. Evans sadly points out, that it "would meet with much opposition from the Grand Army men."

The result of the municipal election in Indianapolis last week is full of encouragement to the friends of good government in the Greater New York. A Mayor was to be chosen for two years. The contest was between the incumbent of the office, Thomas Taggart, a Democrat, who was first elected in 1895, and a Republican. Mr. Taggart depended upon his record as chief magistrate. That record was one of efficiency and fidelity to the public interests. Since he became Mayor the streets have been kept cleaner than ever before, and at a greatly reduced expense; the cost of paving has been lowered; the Fire Department has been enlarged and improved; the telephone and telegraph wires have been put under ground; in short, the government of the city has been well administered. The question for the voters was, therefore, simply whether a good Mayor should be given the second term which he had deserved. The result was the reëlection of Mr. Taggart by a plurality of more than 5,000 over the Republican candidate, in a city which last fall gave McKinley 6,000 plurality over Bryan. More than 5,000 voters who supported the Republican for President last November, vindicated their independence by supporting the Democrat for Mayor on Tuesday week.

Gen. Harrison of Indianapolis has had a conversation with the New York *Sun* by way of helping us to elect our Mayor. He is utterly opposed to the election of Mr. Low on municipal issues solely. The reason is that the voters for McKinley "will inquire how the candidates for Mayor of Greater New York stand upon the questions whether public and private debts are to be paid at forty cents on the dollar, and whether the just powers of the courts are to be upheld against the assaults of the mob." They will want to know, further, whether a particular election "is going to scatter or weaken the forces that won those issues of 1896." His theory, doubtless, is that such an inquiry would reveal Low in his true light, as a "repudiationist or a friend of the mob," and it is very good of him to come so far to suggest the putting of these plain questions by the voters. Low ought to be asked, and Gen. Harrison would confer a great kindness on the community by asking him, whether he is "a repudiationist or a friend of the mob or not." If he is not, why does he insist on putting municipal questions in the foreground? Can it be that he is for a gold standard and *also* for a non-partisan mayor? That he not only wants the streets cleaned by a non-partisan force, but *also* is opposed to free silver? That he is in favor of a non-partisan police and *also* opposed to assaults of the mob on the courts? Gen. Harrison rightfully doubts that such intellectual gymnastics are possible in an honest man. One or other of these views is all his own mind can hold. Were he to become a Citizen Unionist, he feels he would incontinently begin to howl for free silver, and were he to advocate non-partisanship in municipal affairs, he would head a mob in attacking the courts. These are serious men-

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tal limitations, but they are the mental limitations of a great man.

Croker has driven Mr. Dayton, one of the most powerful men in his organization, into open revolt by his insolent exercise of the nominating power for Tammany. As Mr. Dayton says, no man can get a Tammany nomination who exhibits the "slightest hesitation to execute Croker's despotic orders," and hence no man can get into office through Tammany Hall who is not a "mere shadow of Croker," using his office, not for the people, but for the personal benefit of Croker. The same thing is true of the methods of the other boss. No Republican who as an official has failed to do "what the old man wants" in every instance, or who, as a candidate, is not willing to pledge himself to do it in future, can hope to receive a Republican nomination in this city or State. Moreover, in his assertion of exclusive possession of the nominating power, Platt has gone a step beyond Croker. He not only denies the right of the people to nominate candidates by petition through the Citizens' Union, but he has vainly sought to prevent them from exercising the right to nominate by petition which the ballot law confers upon them. He has filed a formal protest against some 17,500 citizens who have gone about in an orderly and legal way to avail themselves of the right to the nomination of candidates for the municipal and State Legislatures. He is so furious at their audacity and impudence in presuming to desire other candidates than those whom he and Croker have selected for them to support, that he invokes the aid of the courts to put a stop to their proceedings. He thus makes enemies of 500 voters in every one of the thirty-five Assembly districts in which the petitions have been signed. These 17,500 or more voters have signed these petitions under the unjust requirements of the ballot law as "doctored" in Platt's interest by his men in the Legislature. He had the number of petitioners necessary to make independent nominations raised so high in all cases as to amount, in his opinion, to a complete barrier. That such a number has still been found, and found without difficulty, in every district of the city, ought to be a startling warning to him of the condition of the public temper.

While the Platt machine was trying to keep the non-partisan ticket off the official ballot in the Greater New York, it was trying to force upon that ballot the sham nomination of a Populist for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, under the name of the "United Democracy," in order to draw off votes from Judge Parker, the candidate of the regular Democrats. Just before midnight of the last day upon which independent State nominations could be filed with the Secretary of State, a bundle of certificates containing 6,000 signatures to the nomination of Charles Frederic Adams by the "United Democracy" for the judgeship was brought into the capitol by Lafayette B. Gleason, the Republican journal clerk of the New York Senate, and John A. Cole, a Republican clerk of the Assembly. Mr. Adams afterward declined the nomination, and the name of Lawrence J. McParlin, a leading Populist, was substituted by the committee charged with the filling of vacancies, as the law allows. The regular Democrats entered protests against the placing of this ticket upon the official ballot on various grounds. The one which will appeal most strongly to the public is the fact that the bulk of the signers to the petitions for the nomination were not members of the shadowy "United Democracy," or Democrats of any sort, but Republicans, and in many cases prominent Republicans. It was conclusively shown that the scheme had been worked up by the Republican State committee, the members of which were perfectly open about their share in the business. Quite aside from this objection to the sincerity of the petitions as really representing the organization for which they purported to stand, there were fatal flaws in the petitions themselves, as that some of the signers were not qualified electors, that others had not sworn that they were residents and electors, and that the necessary number of names in one county had been eked out by plain forgeries. The Secretary of State overruled all these objections, but Justice Herrick of the Supreme Court, whose decision is final, has reversed the determination of the Secretary, and the elaborate scheme of the Platt machine is thus defeated.

Both Croker's and Platt's nominees for the Assembly are declared to be "very bad" this year. But that is only a part of their system of government by blackmail. Platt rakes out of the ooze, as Carlyle said, a set of desperadoes, and sends them to the Legislature, and then he turns to the corporations and says, "Really, the people are electing such a lot of ruffians that your property is not safe for a day unless you pay me money to look out for your interests and beat off these robbers." That is the way Platt is able to figure as "a saviour of society." He first puts a set of brigands in power, and then demands a ransom from the people whose property is endangered by their predatory schemes. Under this system the Legislature must be made visibly worse from year to year in order to keep the corporations and rich men frightened. If they are let off with $50,000 apiece one year, the growing rapacity of the Legislature must justify doubling the assessment the next year. Of course, Gen. Tracy has to be paid more for heading off an attack on property in an assembly of desperate characters than in one of average virtue. So the worse the Legislature is, the bigger the profits of the boss business. Platt is, by nature, such an unpromising-looking, such a mean and unlikely "saviour of society," that he has to make his Legislature very bad indeed in order to get society to believe that he is the man to hire as saviour.

Another outrageous injunction has been issued by the Federal Court in Kansas. Under the law of Kansas, foreign insurance companies may do business in that State on complying with certain formalities. On neglect to pay a loss to any person in Kansas for three months "after final judgment," a foreign company may be prevented from carrying on business. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, having a legal defence, refused to pay a claim, whereupon the Kansas Superintendent revoked its license. This was an illegal act, and the federal judge, on being applied to, at once granted an injunction. It is regarded as an outrage by all true Populists, however, for two reasons—first, because they say that to sue the State Superintendent is virtually to sue the State of Kansas, which is unconstitutional, and, second, because Kansas had made all tight and secure by another law requiring that all actions brought against the Superintendent should be brought in the State courts. Both objections have been brushed aside by the federal court, and as to the last, the court cites several decisions to show that even had the company agreed to the provision as a condition of doing business, it would have been of no avail, for no one can "barter away his life, his freedom, or his constitutional rights." That is, the federal judge will protect the foreign insurer even if the wretch waives all his rights and stipulates that Kansas may strip him at will.

This case throws a strong light on some of the causes of "government by injunction," and shows why it is mainly federal. As the State Legislatures have become more and more corrupt, dishonest, and ignorant, their interference with life, liberty, and property has become incessant; in the same way, as their police, sheriffs, etc., have run down, outside the cities, the danger to life, liberty, and property has increased. As their courts have been more and more filled with elective judges, these have become poorer and poorer. The federal judiciary, on the other hand, with its life-tenure and simple administration, and a resistless power behind it, has steadily increased in importance, while at the same time the multiplication of corporations doing business all over the country, and the revolution in transportation which has made nearly all business in some of its forms "inter-

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state." has made it more and more possible to extend the federal jurisdiction over questions which were formerly purely local. An improvement in the character of the State governments in the West would no doubt do much to reduce the harvest of federal injunctions; wherever they remain Populist—*i. e.*, anarchical—in character, the foreign devils who do not like being cheated and mobbed and robbed and murdered, will invoke and obtain the aid of a government whose courts and executive are ubiquitous and feared.

The Governor of Arizona is out with the annual plea for the admission of that thinly settled territory as a State, with power in the Senate equal to that of New York or Pennsylvania. He claims that Arizona has as much wealth as the average of the twenty-two States admitted from 1791 to 1876, and estimates its population at 87,500. The former claim is too vague for analysis, but the latter can easily be tested. In 1888 there were cast in Arizona 11,538 votes for delegate to Congress; in 1896, after a much more closely contested canvass, 14,051. This represents a gain of only about 20 per cent. in eight years, and the population in 1890 was but 59,620, of which more than 1,500 were Indians, nearly 3,000 Chinese, and over 3,000 Mexicans. A gain of 20 per cent. would bring the total now up to only about 70,000, from which deduction must be made for Indians, Chinese, and Mexicans. Even that reckless advocate of premature statehood, Senator Platt of Connecticut, will hardly favor giving two seats in the Senate to the few thousand men in Arizona who have the right to vote.

The memorial of the English business men to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, regarding the silver craze, goes far to elucidate all we have been saying for years about the influences which govern English monetary action. We have over and over again pointed out the folly of our strolling bimetallists from this side of the water, in basing their opinions of what England is likely to do on interviews with their own brethren in that country, the professors who work out theories of currency on the blackboard, the embarrassed landlords, and the socialistic reformers, who propose to make the mint give human society a great lift. Nothing has been more diverting during the last ten years than to hear men like Mr. W. C. Whitney and the venerable Hoar of Massachusetts tell you, on their arrival from Europe, about the closeness of England to bimetallism. "Why, sir, when such minds as Mr. Balfour's," etc., etc. The secret of English success is, that "such minds as Mr. Balfour's" have no more influence on currency and business than their opinions on aerial navigation. The men who really control England's currency are the great business merchants of the City, who look after her enormous commercial and shipping interests all over the world, and the great banking-houses which bank for them. The investments of this class, which are immense, and which have made England the great creditor nation of the earth, have all been made on the theory that the pound sterling is as stable as the monarchy. Since the report of the Bullion Committee in 1810, these men have never had the slightest wavering about the things which constitute the value of a coin, and never will have. England, through them and the stable standard of value, is the great trader of the globe. When they speak, they speak with an authority which no Chancellor of the Exchequer ventures to disregard.

The report of the Royal Commission on the West Indian sugar industry is a document which shows how much the English have to learn. The commissioners discovered, what is in fact notorious, that the cane-sugar industry in the West Indies was in a bad way; that it was not the fault but the misfortune of the planters that this was so; that they were simply going down before the competition of the bounty-grown sugar of Europe. As for a remedy, the only thorough-going one ever proposed was a protective or "countervailing" duty on the competing sugar. But the strange insularity of the commissioners led them to argue against this. They thought the British consumer might object to having to pay more for his sugar, not seeing how much more important it is to have the industry than to have the sugar. There was also the doubt whether such duties might not conflict with treaty obligations; they would certainly inconvenience trade (the idea of caring about that!); and when all was said, the countervailing duty might not be permanently effective, and then all the disturbance would have been in vain. Besides, the United States was about to go into the beet-sugar industry on an extensive scale, taxing its own citizens heavily for the purpose, and even if the Europeans could be induced to give up their bounties for sugar, the United States could not. Therefore, weakly said the commissioners, we can only let nature and the progress of invention and of industry take their course. And this with Mr. Dingley's success in getting the better of nature by a tax, right before their eyes!

Lovers of those very treacherous affairs, historical parallels, will be disposed to see in Spain's latest policy of placating Cuba an analogy to the last desperate shift to which Philip II. resorted in order to retain his sovereignty over the Netherlands. After Alba's rule of blood and iron in the Low Countries had failed to break their spirit, he was recalled, as Gen. Weyler is now, and Alexander of Parma was sent in his stead. He was to detach the Catholic nobles from the cause of the rebels, as Capt.-Gen. Blanco is now to draw off the Cuban autonomists from the insurgents. Parma won much immediate success in the new policy of conciliation, only to fail miserably in the end. This does not, of course, prove that Gen. Blanco will meet the same fate, but it does suggest that the same difficulties and dangers beset him. For him to come with an olive branch in one hand and a sword in the other, not as alternatives, but as the contradictory things to be put into play at one and the same time, is enough to make the Cubans look twice at their new Captain-General. They will be justified in asking whether it is peace or the sword.

Russia's predominance in European diplomacy, so evident in all the dragging Turkish negotiations, has almost withdrawn attention from her great projects and successes in the Orient. Some of these are detailed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of September 15. First of all is the approaching completion of the trans-Siberian railroad. The engineers now talk of seeing the last kilometre laid in 1898, three years ahead of time. This means, in addition to the vast new territories brought under cultivation and within reach of a market, a direct outlet to the sea. Shut out for the present from Constantinople, diverted from what at one time appeared to be her plan of reaching the sea via Afghanistan and India, Russia now has attained her object on the shores of China. A recent treaty with that country gives her, besides the port of Vladivostok, which is shut by the ice for a part of the year, a harbor in the Bay of Pe-chi-li open all the year round. To it will run direct a branch of the Siberian railroad, and thus the fleet will be in touch with the army and with a base of supplies. In this way, therefore, the object of Russian diplomacy for a hundred years is all but attained. Not yet on the Black Sea (where she will undoubtedly get her outlet some day) or on the Indian Ocean, on the Yellow Sea she has her unobstructed approach to the ocean. She has, besides, valuable trade privileges accorded her in her treaty with China, and is eager to be first in the exploiting of that country. The title of the *Revue* article is, "Who Will Exploit China?" China is, of course, there only to be exploited. As a matter of fact, Russia, France, and England are straining every nerve in the exploiting. Yet our apocalyptic bimetallists utter dire prophecies about "the Yellow Terror"—the invasion of Chinese and Japanese goods. The real Yellow Terror is the fear the Yellow people have of European invaders.

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THE DAWN OF COURAGE.

A striking passage in William Everett's speech, at the time of accepting the National Democratic nomination for Governor of Massachusetts, deplored the sordid and shrinking tone of our political manifestoes and appeals. Nowhere did one catch the note of a brave man uttering brave words. We seemed to be a feeble breed of men fallen on feeble times. The encouraging voices, the elevated principles, the heroic stand for a cause, which had marked other political contests, were this year making their absence painfully felt. All was timidity or truckling; and no cry of real leadership and inspiration could be heard in any part of the field.

A common explanation of this dull and plodding level, which few would deny that our political life seems to have reached, is that the questions now engaging public attention are themselves dull and plodding. Who can be heroic about taxation? Who can get into a fine glow over more or less greenbacks in the currency? Who can grow enthusiastic over the flinging out of one boss, or one machine, simply for the purpose of installing another? Give us back great questions of humanity and justice and national good fame, and we shall have again the ennobling oratory and the dauntless leadership of other days. But this explanation does not explain. Taxation is a dry subject, but when it can be shown to involve social and political injustice, its appeal to generous minds is as urgent and irresistible as was that of the anti-slavery cause itself. So of an honest currency, so of municipal reform; they can be made to appear indissolubly linked with national honor and civic self-respect, and so are capable of arousing the loftiest and most flaming political zeal. No, the fault is not in our causes, but in ourselves, if we are political underlings.

A truer explanation, if still inadequate, may be found in the type of policy and of public man which we have come to reckon successful. Our highest political wisdom seems degenerating into mere opportunism. The ablest politicians are those who can maintain themselves in the nicest equilibrium between opposing principles. How can they stride boldly off, bidding the people follow, when their business is to walk a tight-rope with consummate skill? They must be for protection so delicately adjusted as not to interfere with the revenue, though shutting out foreign goods, and yet not allowing baneful domestic monopolies. They must be resolutely for the gold standard, yet with a tender side for international bimetallism and a hand open as day for silver. And their "Americanism" must be swung on a pivot of similar delicacy; they must be just truculent enough towards foreigners to win applause and delegates, but not so much so as to chill the stock markets or dim prosperity. They spend their days and nights in cultivating, like a county-fair acrobat, sureness of step and balance in the most ticklish positions. It is their perpetual bowing to the crowd on either side of their tight-rope which makes many impatient spirits cry out for thoroughgoing and fearless politicians of the old school, even if the school were to be uncompromising Toryism. That in its worst form, says a writer in one of the English reviews, would be preferable to the nerveless, spineless policy, without principle and without courage, which we see party after party and public man after public man adopting.

The strangest part of it is that the people like courage and conviction as much as they ever did. Our race of political trimmers is not reared to meet a popular demand. Democracy still says, as in Hosea Biglow's day, "By time I *du* like a feller that ain't a Feared." Such a man has but to show himself in public life to see the people rise to him. But when it is a case of taking service with a party or under a boss, instead of for the people, the situation is at once altered. A party is timid by nature; where are the votes to come from if anything is said to offend anybody? A boss is a very rabbit for courage. He neither has nor will tolerate outspoken initiative or clear-sighted leadership. Intrigue and bargaining and compromise and head-in-the-sand are his only skill. The touch of his hand upon a politician is paralyzing. Nothing, in fact, makes a party or a boss more speedily take fright than a man of ideas and boldness in speaking them out. Every such man whom, by mistake, they have admitted to their ranks, they make all haste to silence or expel. Then all is walking the tight-rope of non-committal again.

One of the inspiring things about the Low canvass in New York is that it comes as a fresh breath over what has so long been a stagnant fen. Mr. Low's candidacy had its origin in a bold movement. Daring and resolute in its conception, the Citizens' Union has gone towards its goal with a directness and sincerity which of themselves have been a great inspiration, and which, whatever the final result of the election, will long be felt as a revivifying influence. There is a vast stock of unused public spirit in the country. It has not been drawn upon because the people, confused and puzzled by the choice of evils to which the two political machines have shut them up, have not seen how to apply it. A way out has been shown them in the Citizens' Union movement and the Low canvass. Here were directness, courage, principle, after all the years of juggling and trickery. The swift response of the people, not only in New York but all over the country, marks the appearance of a new political force, which is certain in the next few years more and more to trouble the dreams and bring to naught the plottings of the bosses.

RAILROADS AT WASHINGTON.

During the coming winter several railroad questions of the first importance will be decided at Washington. To say nothing of the Nebraska maximum-rate question, which involves the power of States over railroads, the Joint Traffic case will be decided, and at the same time Congress will be once more strongly appealed to to permit "pooling." The question of "pooling" is directly connected with the question involved in the Joint Traffic case, and apparently the whole matter was passed upon in the Trans-Missouri case (U. S. vs. Trans-Missouri Freight Ass'n, 166 U. S., 290) six months ago; but as that case was decided by a bare majority of the Supreme Court, on a point merely of interpretation, the decision seems to be regarded nowhere as a finality.

The point decided in the Trans-Missouri case was that the federal anti-Trust law of 1890, making criminal all contracts in "restraint of trade," applied to interstate contracts between railroads designed to prevent fluctuation in rates, even though such contracts were perfectly reasonable and publicly advantageous, and would, but for the act, have been enforced. This decision was rested by Justice Peckham, who wrote the majority opinion, on the ground that Congress, under its power over interstate commerce, had sovereign jurisdiction over all interstate business, and that the word "reasonable" could not be read into a statute so as to allow reasonable contracts in restraint of trade. Four Judges took the opposite view, and in the courts below the contracts had been sustained. Substantially the same question will come up in the Joint Traffic case, but there are in it other points which will make necessary a reconsideration of the whole subject.

Should Congress give the railroads the right to "pool," or apportion their earnings equitably, so as to prevent ruinous competition (and this involves a modification of the interstate-commerce act which hitherto has been steadily refused), they will escape most of the immediate evil effects of the anti-Trust decision, but it will not relieve them of the legal incubus evoked by Judge Peckham, which can be got rid of now only by the discovery of some means by which the Supreme Court may mitigate the effects of his decision. If some such means cannot be found, then we are face to face with a situation which might easily produce intolerable consequences.

For the anti-Trust decision is the only one ever rendered by the Supreme Court which not merely makes Congress perpetually supreme over an enor-

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mous field of human activity, but seems to lay down in advance that its power is beyond the control of the courts. The States have in the "police power" a sovereign right to regulate commerce within State lines, but the courts have always held that it must be reasonably exercised; and this really means that it must be exercised under the supervision of the courts, and that State Legislatures cannot so use it as to impair ordinary contractual rights, which, of course, include the liberty to make reasonable contracts in restraint of trade. The latest legal-tender decisions give Congress the right to debase the currency, but this right has never yet been exercised, and probably never will be. But the field of interstate commerce is, owing to facts which every one knows, the whole field of business itself. With the exception of petty local trade, all business is, or may be, interstate. Every manufacturer, farmer, and merchant carries on more or less interstate business, and if the domain covered by the anti-Trust decision could be made perceptible to the senses, it would be seen that what the Supreme Court has done is to give Congress absolute power over three-quarters of the business of the country, and to declare that as to this business Congress may make any reasonable or innocent act a crime, provided it is in restraint of trade—a phrase so elastic as to mean whatever you please. This is a very terrible power, and has never been asserted before, so far as we know, by any constitutional authority or by any court.

The decision has brought out a great deal of vigorous criticism from the bar, and the discussion, so far as it has proceeded, shows pretty clearly that it is hoped that in the Joint Traffic case the court may be persuaded to take the view that the rule of interpretation laid down by itself in the Trans-Missouri case makes the act which that rule upheld itself unconstitutional. This seems to be the upshot of Mr. Guthrie's widely quoted article on the subject, and of the recent discussion in the American Bar Association. The committee of the latter body which has taken the matter in hand, one of whose members is Mr. Moorfield Storey, emphatically calls attention to the argument that if Judge Peckham's decision be correct, "it must logically follow that the act of July 2, 1890, is unconstitutional, in this, that it violates the fifth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, which declares that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law"; the Supreme Court having steadily held that "liberty" includes all reasonable contractual common-law rights.

While it is idle to attempt to predict what the Supreme Court will do, the importance of the matter cannot be exaggerated. To our minds it is inconceivable that the court can go so far as to make the sovereignty of the United States, within the sphere of what three generations of judges, from Marshall down, have uniformly treated as "delegated powers," an absolute tyranny. Such would unquestionably be the effect of the rule or interpretation apparently laid down by the court in the Trans-Missouri case, which actually puts Congress in the position of the Roman Emperor, and substitutes for the test of Reason which courts of justice apply to all law, the "Sic volo, sic jubeo, stet pro ratione voluntas" of the despot.

A GREAT JUDICIAL CAREER.

The retirement of Justice Field from the bench of the United States Supreme Court ends one of the great judicial careers in the history of the nation, and indeed of the English-speaking race. Exceeding by a few months the hitherto unprecedented term of Chief-Justice Marshall, not only does this term stand first of all in point of length, but the third of a century in the court's history which it covers is rivalled in the importance of its decisions only by the other third of a century in which that great jurist interpreted the new Constitution.

Stephen J. Field possessed the qualities which eminently fit a man for the bench, and yet his early career gave little promise that the New York lawyer of thirty-three, who sailed for California as one of the Argonauts in 1849, would in 1897 be retiring from the bench of the Supreme Court after a record of more than thirty-four years' honorable service. As things turned out, however, it was his infection with the gold fever which opened the way for his later career. His knowledge both of laws and of human nature fitted him for something higher than merely heaping up money like a Fair or a Mackay, and the pioneers recognized his qualifications by making him first a member of the California Legislature and afterwards of the State Supreme Court. His prominence in this latter capacity rendered him the one man to be considered for the place when Congress, in the second year of the Lincoln administration, authorized the appointment of another Judge of the United States Supreme Court, who was expected to be taken from the Pacific Coast.

Beginning service at Washington midway in the civil war, Justice Field not only has remained on the bench long enough to see all the issues which grew out of that conflict finally settled (if we except the legal-tender question), but he has himself been one of the chief agencies in this settlement. The retiring Judge, with entirely justifiable feeling, thus characterizes the period and his share in it:

"The war ended in a couple of years, and then came the great period of reconstruction and the last amendments to the federal Constitution. In the effort to reëstablish the nation, to adjust all things to the changed political, social, and economical conditions, questions of far-reaching import were developed—questions of personal liberty, of constitutional right—which, after ofttimes heated discussions before the people and in the halls of Congress, came to us for decision. I do not exaggerate when I say that no more difficult and momentous questions were ever presented to this or any other court. I look back with pride and joy to the fact that I was permitted to take part in the consideration of all those important questions, and that not infrequently I was called upon to express the judgment of this court thereon. And now that those times of angry debate, deep feeling, and judicial decision have passed, it is pleasant to realize that the conclusions announced by this court have been accepted, not simply of necessity, as so prescribed by the fundamental law, but in the main as in themselves both correct and wise."

Justice Field omits to mention what we must consider the greatest of the services which it has fallen to his lot to render in the last third of a century. This was his firm assertion of the unconstitutionality of the legal-tender acts. He concurred with Chief-Justice Chase in the opinion pronounced by the latter for the majority of the court in 1870, that the making of notes or bills of credit a legal tender in payment of pre-existing debts was inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution, and was, in effect, prohibited by the Constitution; and that, therefore, the legal-tender acts, so far as they applied to debts contracted before their passage, were unconstitutional and unwarranted. When the court in 1871, having meanwhile been enlarged in numbers, reversed its position, he dissented in an opinion upon which he may well be content to commit his reputation to the judgment of posterity.

Justice Field showed that the policy of maintaining a fixed and uniform standard could not be carried out, and that a fixed and uniform metallic standard of value throughout the United States could not be maintained, so long as any other standard was adopted which of itself had no intrinsic value and was for ever fluctuating and uncertain. He admitted that the acts in question had been passed in a great emergency by patriotic men, who were convinced that this policy would increase the ability of the Government to obtain funds and supplies, and thus advance the national cause; but he declared that, sitting as a judicial officer, and bound to compare every law enacted by Congress with the greater law enacted by the people, and being unable to reconcile the measure in question with that fundamental law, he could not hesitate to pronounce it, in his judgment, unconstitutional and void. He added this admirable exposition of loyalty:

"In the discussions which have attended this subject of legal tender, there has been at times what seemed to me to be a covert intimation that opposition to the measure in question was the expression of a spirit not altogether favorable to the cause in the interest of which that measure was adopted.

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All such intimations I repel with all the energy I can express. I do not yield to any one in honoring and reverencing the noble and patriotic men who were in the councils of the nation during the terrible struggle with the rebellion. To them belong the greatest of all glories of our history—that of having saved the Union, and that of having emancipated a race. For these results they will be remembered and honored so long as the English language is spoken or read among men. But I do not admit that a blind approval of every measure which they may have thought essential to put down the rebellion is any evidence of loyalty to the country. The only loyalty which I can admit consists in obedience to the Constitution and laws made in pursuance of it. It is only by obedience that affection and reverence can be shown to a superior having a right to command. So thought our great Master, when he said to his disciples: 'If ye love me, keep my commandments.'"

In his letter of farewell to his associates Justice Field recalls the circumstances of his appointment. There had up to that time been no representative of the Pacific Coast in the court. "A new empire had risen in the West, whose laws were those of another country. The land titles were from Spanish and Mexican grants, both of which were often overlaid by the claims of the first settlers. To bring order out of this confusion, Congress passed an act providing for another seat on this bench, with the intention that it should be filled by some one familiar with these conflicting titles and with the mining laws of the coast." As Judge Field had framed the principal of these laws, and was then the Chief Justice of California, the Senators and Representatives of that State, as well as of neighboring Oregon, recommended to Lincoln his selection. In other words, an able man was appointed to the highest tribunal on the ground of demonstrated fitness, and thus was given the opportunity for a great judicial career.

THE REHABILITATION OF THE TURK.

The Sultan has within a fortnight furnished a comic illustration of his contempt for the "Concert of the Powers" by proposing that the new Governor of Crete should be a Turkish subject appointed by himself, and that Turkish troops should assist those of the Powers in restoring order. This is his comment on the promise of autonomy and of the removal of the Turkish troops made over and over again to the Cretans. He has no more idea of conceding them autonomy and withdrawing from the control of their affairs than he had twenty years ago. He looks on his signing of the treaty about Greece as a concession on his part which entitles him to some return in concessions on their part about Crete. He has said as much in a letter. The Greek war and the negotiations which followed it are, in fact, the only really happy conclusion to a foreign complication which has befallen the Turks since they retired from Vienna in 1683. Every other war has ended either in the loss of territory, or in increased privileges for the Christians, or in some sort of humiliation, making the Turks more and more sensible of their dependence on, or subjection to, Christendom.

The reason has been that, when every other conflict was brought to a close, there has been some Power on the scene which refused to the Sultan any place in the family of Christian nations, or offered him, at best, only some sort of protection. At the close of the Greek war in 1827 England and Russia destroyed his fleet, and the French compelled him to get out of Greece. At the close of the Russian war in 1829 the Russians dictated peace to him in Adrianople. At the close of the Crimean war England and France saved him by making him promise more concessions to Christians and general good behavior. At the close of the war of 1877 he bought peace and his capital by surrendering Bosnia, Herzegovina, Cyprus, Servia, and Bulgaria, and agreeing to pay a large sum in damages. On none of these occasions did he escape the position of an humble protégé saved by some powerful friend from utter extinction. It was reserved for Lord Salisbury's ministry to admit the Turk freely to the European "Areopagus," to treat him as an equal, to respect his rights as a conqueror of Christian people, and to insist on their paying him a ransom for not ravaging them, as Solyman the Magnificent might have done. The Turk actually holds Christian territory and Christian people in pawn for a sum of money, with the full assent of Christendom. About his manner of governing these people or in what manner he makes them pay his taxes or assessments in the meantime, while they are in pawn, every other nation refuses to concern itself.

The result is that the present Sultan is now probably in a state of pride and exultation such as none of his predecessors have felt for 200 years. Every one of them, since 1683, has lived in a state of fear of Christendom, of consciousness that he was on his good behavior, and that any European Power with which he got into trouble might extinguish him if he did not get another to help him. He has, in fact, never made a treaty before with a Christian Power, inflicting on it the miseries of conquest such as ransom and Turkish rule, with the sanction, acquiescence, and assistance of other Christian Powers. The thing is unprecedented and unparalleled. Ever since 1453, when he took Constantinople, until now, Christendom has agreed to treat the Turk at first as an infidel to be crusaded against, and then as a barbarian robber, to be watched and guarded against. For two centuries young men from the West went forth to fight the Turks as the grandest duty they owed to their own religion and civilization. For one century, at least, civilized men in the West have quieted their consciences for allowing the Turk to exist in Europe as a political organization, by pretending to shrink from the convulsion that would result from the partition of his territory. Never until now has he been treated as a member of the family of nations, with a right to exist, with pride to be considered, with the privileges and immunities of international law to be inherited.

Yet to this new departure, to the full admission of a ferocious Mussulman barbarian, red-handed from Christian slaughter, to the circle of Christian civilization, the British Premier has freely consented, and five Christian Powers are chuckling over the exploit. The terrible Lord Salisbury, whose advent to office Mr. Curzon naïvely said was hailed with delight in all the British embassies, and who was to give the poor Irish "twenty years of resolute government," is the man who has done it. There remains but one thing to lay this whole transaction bare before the civilized conscience, and that is for the Sultan to refuse to leave either Thessaly or Crete. Who will compel him? Not the desperate Lord Salisbury, not Italy, not Germany, not Russia, not France, for France has vacated her old place as the champion of oppressed nations. He will, or all precedents fail, stay in Thessaly and in Crete until Christian guns are pointed at him and Christian fleets blockade his ports.

When one looks at this transaction in connection with "the forward policy" in India, the disappearance of Mr. Gladstone from the political arena assumes the proportions of an immense public calamity. Whatever his faults, he would have been incapable of the ignoble rôle played by Lord Salisbury. Help for the clergy and the landlords, and vigorous operations against the uneasy tribesmen in the Indian hills, and endless concession to the Turk, seem now to be the whole Tory programme. Gladstone could not have wished a better illustration of what he was to England than what is now going on in Europe and India. They are the gorgeous colors in the sunset of his life. Every one who sees the Turk in Thessaly will sigh in thinking that the old man's "bugle-horn" is for ever silent.

THE PRINCIPAL LIBRARIAN OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

LONDON, October 7, 1897.

At the international conference of librarians held in London, in July last, some one observed that "there were Libraries and Libraries." In like manner, it may be said, there are Librarians and Librarians. To go a step further, one might interject that a Librarian may not be a Librarian at all. Such, in fact, is the case of the distinguished official who is charged with the care of that great storehouse of knowledge and art called the British Museum. The name of Prin-

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cipal Librarian is, in his case, altogether a misnomer. Director-in-Chief would be a fitter title for a functionary who is responsible for property worth millions sterling, who directs the labors of a staff of experts and highly educated officials, and accounts for the spending of large sums of money. The name of Principal Librarian was given to the office by the Act of Incorporation of 1753, when the institution was only a Library, and the conservative spirit of the British nation is content to let the title continue. But the Principal Librarian is also the secretary to the Trustees, who are the governing body of the British Museum, and in whom is vested the freehold of the premises. At one time the office of secretary was held by an independent officer; but the arrangement did not work, and the two officers were joined together in one official.

In discharging his several functions, the Principal Librarian acts directly under the orders of the Trustees, with whom he is brought into frequent contact at the various meetings of the standing committee, of the sub-committees, and at the annual meeting of the whole body. The Trustees do not appoint the Principal Librarian, but, when the office becomes vacant, they submit two names to the sovereign, who, advised by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, selects one of the persons named and appoints that person by a royal warrant. So identified is the Principal Librarian with the functions of the Trustees that something should be said of that distinguished body. In round numbers there are about fifty Trustees. Of these the larger number consist of the Official Trustees, of whom most are great officers of state, and the remainder are the Presidents of the Royal Society, the Royal College of Physicians, the Society of Antiquaries, and the Royal Academy. The topmost of all are the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord High Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons. By these three Trustees the patronage of filling up offices is exercised, guided to a certain extent by the advice of the Principal Librarian. After the Official Trustees comes the Trustee appointed by the Queen, now the Bishop of Winchester. Then there are the Family Trustees, who represent the families of Sloane, Cotton, Harley, Towneley, the Earls of Elgin (of Elgin Marbles fame) and Knight. Last of all are the Elected Trustees. It is a high distinction to be an Elected Trustee, and the names of these elected members include such well-known persons as the Duke of Argyll, Lord Acton, Sir John Lubbock, the Earl of Rosebery, Sir George Trevelyan, the Earl of Crawford, Sir John Evans (President of the British Association), Mr. John Morley, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt.

As so large a body would be likely to be unwieldy in its movements, the Trustees, year by year, elect a standing committee of nineteen members of the Trust, for the dispatch of business. This committee meets ten times during the year, and the business for its consideration is so methodically brought before it by the Secretary that an hour is found to be sufficient time for its sitting. Mr. John Morley and Mr. Cavendish Bentinck are among the most frequent attendants, and the Prince of Wales is present at six out of the ten meetings. The senior Trustee present at the time of meeting takes the chair; but the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons, in their order, if present, preside before all others. The Prince of Wales escapes taking the chair by uniformly coming a few minutes late. The standing committee has, for prompt action, resolved itself into sub-committees for buildings, finance, printed books and manuscripts, antiquities, prints and drawings, and for coins and medals.

In the exercise of their authority, the Trustees have, for the guidance of their chief officer, defined his responsibilities. The duties of the principal librarian are laid down, generally, in the "Statutes and Rules for the British Museum," as approved by the Trustees on the 8th of May, 1886. Therein the Principal Librarian is made responsible for the safety of the Museum and of its contents; for the superintendence of the several departments into which the institution is divided, and of their respective officers; and for advising the Trustees upon the reports of officers of the establishment. He is required to grant admission to the Museum to persons of eminence, either for learning or rank, "especially foreigners, desiring to inspect the collections, but not able conveniently to avail themselves of the usual mode of admission." He is to take care that the institution be kept open during the appointed hours, and that proper order be observed by all persons. He is to grant admission to the reading-room, the print-room, and the sculpture galleries, and to afford readers and students all proper facilities. He is responsible for giving effect to the orders of the Trustees, and for the editing and publishing of the guides to the collections. Lastly, the Principal Librarian is required to be in attendance when the Museum shall be visited by the sovereign, or by any members of the royal family, or by royal personages of other countries. The dignified presence and courtly manners of the present Principal, in addition to his other qualifications, render him a very fit person to welcome royalties to the great temple of learning.

The *Statutes and Rules* above mentioned define the duties of the Secretary of the Trustees after the following manner: He is to issue summonses for, and to attend all meetings of, the Trustees held at the Museum, and to take minutes of their proceedings. He is to take charge of all records and other documents connected with the business of the Trust. He is to submit all accounts due from the Trustees and payable from the Parliamentary grant, for approval at each meeting of the standing committee, and to take care that orders for payment are duly made upon the Paymaster-General. He is to conduct the correspondence of the Trustees. Payments on account of the Museum from the Funds account at the Bank of England are to be made by him. To do so, he is authorized to sign checks for payments from the Funds account. Of these payments he is required to keep an exact statement, and to lay it before the standing committee at the close of each financial year. He is required to give security for the due discharge of his office to the amount of £10,000—in his own bond for £5,000, and two sureties in a joint and several bond for £5,000. He is to examine all accounts against the Museum, and to certify to their correctness, and to keep a weekly account of all work done for the Trust, paid otherwise than by fixed salaries, and to certify that it has been authorized and that the charges are accurate. He is to account for the various transactions with books published by the Trustees; is to examine and check the printers' and booksellers' accounts, and receive moneys due from booksellers and others; and he is to keep an account of the stationery received and expended, and make all applications to the Stationery Office.

In the exercise of his functions and responsibilities, as thus defined, the Principal Librarian controls the several Departments into which the institution is divided. All the reports of the keepers pass through him to the Trustees. He accounts for the spending of the sum of £163,000, which is voted annually by Parliament, under the head *British Museum*. This amount includes the sum voted for the National History Museum at South Kensington, the accounting for which is his only connection with that otherwise distinct institution, but which, like the Museum, is also subject to the Trustees. The Principal Librarian advises the Trustees as to purchases for the Museum of works of art, books, manuscripts, and otherwise. He conducts a large correspondence; not merely signing his name to thousands of documents, but writing scores of letters with his own hand, among the latter being beautifully worded letters of thanks for donations to the institution. He supervises all admissions of readers and art-students; fights disagreeable persons; soothes ruffled people's feelings; and redresses all reasonable complaints of the public. The "fighting of disagreeable persons" takes various forms, the most severe of which is in the form of lawsuits. An instance in point is that of the lawyer to whom a reader's ticket was refused, and who took proceedings in court after court to try and compel the Museum authorities to issue a ticket to him. But the judges held that it was within the discretion of the authorities to withhold a ticket when they thought fit; and the result of the long-drawn-out litigation was the passing of an Act of Parliament to prevent vexatious actions being brought against the Principal Librarian.

As regards his own staff, he has to maintain due discipline; to regulate the purchase of acquisitions; criticise the arrangement of the collections; keep an eye upon the catalogues of the various departments; push on the labelling, and enthuse the keepers, if such a need were to be possible. To drive a team of about 350 persons, and to manage about half a million of visitors, year by year, requires business aptitudes which the Principal Librarian must possess. In all circumstances, that official must have the command of his own temper. At times, in the interests of the public, he has to attempt to soften the heart of the Treasury and to wheedle the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Then there is the writing of guide-books; the working of the sales of the publications of the Museum, which brought in last year £1,800; and the settling of donations to libraries and other institutions. As the custodian of a vast pile of buildings, the Principal Librarian has, moreover, to attend to the cleaning, lighting, warming, and general up-keep of the fabric. He must, perforce, imagine himself more or less of an expert in drainage, electricity, fire apparatus, hydraulics, and hydrants. Added to the foregoing, and to other duties "too numerous to be specified," the Principal Librarian has to discharge the ordinary duties of a house-agent, in letting the surrounding property acquired by the nation for the prospective enlargement of the Museum. In this capa-

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city the Principal Librarian collects rents amounting, yearly, to the respectable sum of £4,200.

Of course, in the discharge of his multifarious duties, the Principal Librarian is assisted by a staff of very able men, some of them individually of high distinction in their several branches of knowledge. Only men who have taken honors at a university are now allowed to be even enrolled as candidates for employment on the staff of the Museum; and a knowledge of the Greek, Latin, French, and German languages is obligatory. Ask one of the juniors how many languages he is acquainted with. If he tells you half-a-dozen, and you compliment him on his acquirements, he modestly deprecates your thinking much of his attainments while some of his colleagues so far excel him, as he points out. The Principal Librarian's immediate staff consists of the Assistant Secretary, the accountant, three first-class assistants, one second-class assistant, three second-division clerks, two boy copyists, and an attendant. Then comes that great division of the institution, so dear to bookmen, the Department of Printed Books, Maps, Charts, and Plans. Of this branch Dr. Richard Garnett, C.B., himself a walking cyclopædia, is the distinguished head. Under him are three assistant keepers, of whom the senior is Mr. George Fortescue, a most popular official. With them cooperate fourteen assistants of the first class and twenty of the second class. These gentlemen are all scholars of exceptional attainments. The linguistic acquirements of some of them are, to the ordinary student, simply amazing. Mr. Bain, for example, is said to be master of about thirty languages, mostly Slavic. But even he does not come up to a former member of the staff, Mr. Martineau, who is said to have been silent in almost all the languages of the civilized world. Mr. Coote, who has charge of the maps, is a master of cartography. About one hundred attendants of different grades serve with this department, with which are associated the Reading-Room and the Newspaper-Room.

Of the important Department of Manuscripts Mr. Scott is the keeper, having Mr. Warner as assistant keeper. With them are nine assistants, among whom are Mr. de Grey Birch, Mr. Bickley, and Mr. Kenyon. Mr. Bickley presides over the Literary Search Room, where his helpfulness to students is highly appreciated. Mr. Kenyon leaped into fame by his identification of the Aristotle manuscript. Fourteen attendants serve with this branch. The Department of Oriental Printed Books and Manuscripts has Mr. Robert Kennaway Douglas as its keeper, and he has four assistants under him. Five attendants are here. Mr. Sidney Colvin is the well-known keeper of the Department of Prints and Drawings, and he has eleven assistants and two attendants. Of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, Dr. Budge is the keeper. He has three assistants and six attendants. Mr. Stuart Murray is keeper of the Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities. He has an assistant keeper and three assistants with him, and eight attendants. Mr. Charles Hercules Read is keeper of the Department of British and Mediæval Antiquities and Ethnography. His staff consists of three assistants and seven attendants. Lastly, the Department of Coins and Medals has Mr. Barclay Vincent Head as its keeper and Mr. Grueber as assistant keeper. With them are three assistants and two attendants.

The foregoing make up the establishment proper. Besides these are a large number of employees, ranking under the general heading of "House Attendants, Servants, etc." Among these are twenty commissionaires, seven gate-keepers and watchmen, thirty-two laborers and window-cleaners. Twenty-six policemen are stationed on the premises, under an inspector and two sergeants. There is a staff for warming and ventilating the building, another staff for electric lighting, and a staff of masons. In all there are between 350 and 360 persons subject to the control of the Principal Librarian, and for whose correct discharge of their duties he is directly responsible.

The office of Principal Librarian is not only held, but filled, by Sir Edward Maunde Thompson, K.C.B. A Rugby boy and an Oxford man, and a barrister-at-law of the Middle Temple to boot, Sir Edward administers his great department of the state with high efficiency. Appointed at a comparatively early age, he is still in the prime of a vigorous manhood, intellectual and physical. A scholar, distinguished by his successes in palæography, he is also a thorough man of business. Having worked his way up from the starting-point of an assistant, he has risen, grade by grade, to the headship of the Museum, and most fittingly does that honorable office become hm. As a chief who will not allow undue laxity of any sort, he is regarded by some as unduly strict, but, as a most constant visitor to the Reading Room of the Museum observed, though he and others had wished that another of the staff had been appointed to succeed Mr. Bond, the previous Principal, they could not but agree that Sir Edward was a very fit person for the appointment. "Write to him in a businesslike way when you feel aggrieved, and he will always give you satisfaction. He is a real man of business," said the person referred to.

That vigorous man, Sir Antonio Panizzi, left his name "writ large" upon the Museum. The Reading-Room of itself is a monument to the genius of that illustrious Italian exile. When Panizzi retired on his well-earned pension, he was succeeded by Mr. Winter Jones. The latter, it is thought by some, had hardly a fair chance of distinguishing himself. He was still overshadowed by the powerful personality of Panizzi, who, living hard by in Bloomsbury Square, still exercised his influence with the Trustees. Mr. Gladstone himself is said to have at times walked round to Bloomsbury Square, after a meeting of the Trustees, to have a chat with Panizzi. To Mr. Winter Jones succeeded Mr. Bond, a man spoken of to this day with affectionate regard, on account of his charming personality. He left his mark upon the institution by extending the hours for use of the Reading-Room and by starting the printing of the catalogue of books. Before his time the Reading-Room was closed at four P. M. in winter and at six P. M. in summer. Mr. Bond extended the hours to eight P. M. both summer and winter. He was enabled to make this change through the introduction of the electric light, to the inventors of which, as well as to Mr. Bond, students owe gratitude for lengthening the hours for research.

To Mr. Bond succeeded Sir Edward Thompson, for whom his predecessors had left little scope for adding to the advantages which the nation derives from its splendid institution. Sir Edward maintains these advantages, and, where practicable, adds to them. During his administration the Museum has been opened to the public on Sundays. By the exercise of tact and address, with which he is abundantly provided, Sir Edward has managed to get the three principal Trustees to forego, in the interest of the institution, a bit of their patronage. The attendants form a considerable number of the staff. It was usual, heretofore, for these subordinate officers to be recruited from the ranks of the butlers and other dependents of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons, and of their friends and relations. But by good management on the part of Sir Edward those great officers of state have allowed the Principal Librarian to employ a number of lads on probation. After these youths have served some years, and have proved their fitness, they are appointed to vacancies arising in the ranks of the attendants. It must be said for the attendants of the old régime, however, that, taken as a body, a more obliging and polite body of men could not be found.

Sir Edward has taken, also, an active part in advising the Trustees to acquire such valuable additions as the Malcom collection of prints and the Nelson papers. But his tenure of office is likely to be especially identified with his skilful management of the purchase of a considerable area adjoining the Museum premises. The buildings at present occupied by the Museum cover an area of seven and a half acres of land. Sir Edward learned that, in a few years, the leases would fall in of the land covering five and a half acres, which completes the block of houses in that part of London on which the Museum stands. He brought the matter before the Trustees, and urged the acquisition by the nation of the land and buildings in question. Negotiations followed with the Government and with the late Duke of Bedford, who, according to his cousin, Mr. George Russell, had a sort of idea that he should have been in the poor-house but for his "owning some lodging-houses in Bloomsbury." The Duke was willing to sell, but he died before completing the sale. The present Duke also fell into the arrangement, and, for £200,000, the five and a half acres, with the buildings thereon, became the property of the nation. The Museum has now a reserve of space for expansion. When fully extended, the institution will occupy thirteen acres of land in the centre of London. Meanwhile, the recently purchased premises are let out, on short leases, for seven, fourteen, and twenty-one years, and will be taken over gradually, as the needs of the Museum require. From the premises so acquired the nation is at present drawing an annual rental of £4,200.

It cannot but be interesting to Americans to know that the gentleman who adorns the eminent office of Principal Librarian of the British Museum is a native of the New World. Sir Edward Maunde Thompson was born in Jamaica.

PETER THE GREAT.—II.

PARIS, October 4, 1897.

We left Peter the Great on his way from England to Vienna. The Emperor Leopold was determined to respect the incognito of "Peter Mikhailof." Peter wished to ob-

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tain the alliance of Austria against the Turks, but Austria, at that moment, was for peace at any price. The diplomatic object of the visit was not attained. Very grave news reached Peter from Russia; once more the Strelitzi had revolted. Peter, who was on the point of going to Venice, left at once for Cracow; there he learned that the rebellion had come to an end. He stopped for four days at Rawa, with King August II.

This interview has an historical importance. August and Peter were drawn towards each other by their personal tastes; August, tall, handsome, a hard drinker, a great sportsman, pleased Peter. "After four days spent in banqueting without interruption, they divided between themselves the spoils of Sweden and exchanged arms and uniforms." There was no positive plan of alliance or of war fixed—the two friends had too much to do at home first; but they prepared the alliance which was afterwards formed against Charles XII. King Augustus had to pacify Poland, and Peter had to establish a new régime in his empire. On his return from his first journey to Europe, the young Tsar showed himself to his subjects in the Polish costume, a costume of the Occident. A few days afterwards, at a banquet given by Gen. Sheïn, he took a pair of scissors and amused himself by cutting the beards of the guests. It was not a mere pleasantry; a few days later a ukase ordered the cutting of beards.

Peter had determined in his mind, on seeing Occidental troops, to suppress the Strelitzi. These were the ancient Muscovite army, already superseded by the new militia, which had taken Azov. "From his childhood Peter had always found the Strelitizi in his way: they had massacred his parents, his friends; they had protected against him the power of a usurper; now they had, when parleying with Sheïn before the mutiny which he had quelled, violently assailed Lefort and the other foreigners about him. He had had enough of it, and determined to extirpate the germ of perpetual revolts. . . . He was not content with the knout, or even with a few hangings. The thing must be done on a grand scale, after his own measure." An inquisition was instituted, and fourteen chambers of torture set to work in the village of Preobrazhenskoi. The details are too horrible to be told. The examination bore chiefly on the part taken by the Tsarevna and her sisters in fomenting the mutiny. Nothing was proved. The want of real evidence only exasperated the young Tsar; he had been a witness of the interrogatories and of the tortures. On the 30th of September he sent two hundred men to the field of execution.

"Five were beheaded on the way, before the house of the Tsar, at Preobrazhenskoi, Peter playing himself the part of executioner. The fact is attested by a number of witnesses, adopted by the opinion of contemporaries, and admitted by most historians. . . . And Peter was not satisfied to use the axe himself; he insisted that his suite should do the same. Galitzin was awkward and hurt his victims terribly; Menshikoff and Romodanovski were more adroit. Only the foreigners, Lefort and Blomberg, Colonel of the Preobrazhenskoi Regiment, refused to assist in the detestable work. On the Red Square of Moscow, where the condemned were taken two by two on sledges, with lighted tapers in their hands, they were laid down in lines of fifty along a tree-trunk which served for a block. On the 11th of October there were 144 fresh executions; 205 on the 12th; 141 on the 13th; 109 on the 17th; 65 on the 18th; 106 on the 19th. Two hundred Strelitzi were hanged before the windows of Sophia. . . . She herself was shut up in a convent."

The Strelitzi militia was condemned. The work of extermination continued. The legend of the Red Square, with its bloody memories, blends with older legends, for the Red Square is a holy place; it is situated at one of the entrances to the Kremlin. "The first relics and images brought to Moscow were deposited there, and there, in solemn circumstances, were still celebrated the ceremonies of the Russian Church; there the Patriarch gave his benediction to the faithful; there were read the most important ukases."

It is very difficult to follow Peter the Great in M. Waliszewski's book. The account which I have just given of the massacre of the Strelitzi appears only in the second part of the volume, after many events which are posterior. The author has unfortunately adopted what is called the analytic method, instead of keeping the chronological order which, in history, seems the only acceptable one. His systematic classification deprives his conscientious work of dramatic interest. All his various topics would have been blended, by a more skilful hand, in the biography of Peter the Great. We should then have better witnessed the development of Peter's work, of his ideas, of his plans, of his ambitions. It is much to be hoped that the analytic method introduced in literature by Taine, and which has its merits in a purely critical work, should not be applied to history. We wish our heroes to be alive, and we don't like to see them cut, so to speak, in pieces.

The chapter on the Tsarevitch Alexis contains much new matter, or at least matter which is new to our Western literature. The great Frederick said of Peter that he worked upon his people as the acid works on iron; it may be said that he worked in the same way on his family. The Tsarevitch Alexis was chosen by the Old Russians, the enemies of the new Western civilization, as a representative and an instrument. The Old Muscovites could not bring themselves to consider Peter as a true Russian, born of a Russian father and of a Russian mother; they thought he was a supposititious child, a German. Some believed him to be the Antichrist. The popes were the leaders of a secret and permanent opposition. "Our fathers and brothers," said one, "are beardless; our altars are abandoned; our most sacred laws are violated; we live under the tyranny of foreigners." The Tsarevitch Alexis had in him something of the spirit of the Old Russians. He was born on the 10th of February, 1690. His father married him in 1711 to Charlotte of Wolfenbüttel. Almost unconsciously, from his ardent orthodoxy, hostile to all new ideas, he became the chief of a party of opposition. He refused to serve in the army; he would not tolerate any tutors or learn anything; he would not make a campaign, and his father finally threatened to put him in a convent. Alexis took flight; he went to Vienna, to Naples, with a page, who was a Finnish woman, his mistress, a coarse and vulgar peasant girl, who had acquired almost absolute power over him.

After a long negotiation between the Emperor and the Tsar, Alexis was delivered over to his father. On the 31st of January, 1718, Peter saw his son again in Moscow. Alexis had to appear in the Kremlin, without his sword, before an assembly of high dignitaries, presided over by his father. He fell on his knees, wept, implored pardon; he had to renounce all his rights to the throne and to recognize as his heir his younger brother, Peter; he gave the names of all his accomplices. It was not enough; the revelations made by his mistress, who was arrested, were made the pretext for a new trial. This time Alexis was accused of high treason and was tortured; he died before the end of the trial. How did he die? According to the official version, he had a stroke of apoplexy. M. Waliszewski believes in a violent death, and attributes the death of the unfortunate Prince to successive applications of the knout for several days.

"Peter," he says, "killed his own son. There is no possible justification for it. I will not accept the argument of political necessity invoked by the defence. A single fact is the answer to this argument: Peter would not have this son for his heir, but to whom did he leave his heritage? To the unknown. Catherine picked up the crown in a court intrigue. For half a century Russia was given up to adventurers and to chance. This was the result for which the great man put his torturers to work. But he was a great man, and made Russia great; herein is his only excuse."

Correspondence.

THE SLAUGHTER OF THE SEALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an editorial in your issue of September 30 occurs the following statement:

"No later than last year, when our Government was reproaching the British for pelagic sealing, with its danger of exterminating the herds, we allowed the killing of 30,000 seals on the islands, which cannot but be regarded, experts say, as an 'exhaustive slaughter.'"

This remark is very misleading. The killing on the islands is and always has been limited strictly to the superfluous young males. No females are allowed to be killed for any purpose. The polygamous habit of the fur seal renders twenty-nine thirtieths of the males superfluous. The partial suspension of this killing of males during the modus-vivendi of 1892-'93 has overstocked the islands with idle adult bulls, who, in their efforts to gain harems, kill females and trample pups to death. The killing of males as practised by the Government has only a beneficial effect on the herd.

The complaint against pelagic sealing is based upon the fact that it involves the slaughter of females as well as males. Seventy-five to eighty per cent. of the pelagic catch consists of females. These when taken in the spring off the Northwest Coast are heavy with pup; when taken in Bering Sea they are both pregnant and nursing. Not only, therefore, are the adult-breeding females killed, but their unborn and dependent offspring die with them. It is this wasteful and destructive method of slaughter which is exterminating the herd, and the contention of the United States, directed as it is against such slaughter, is wholly justified by the facts.—Very truly yours,

GEORGE A. CLARK,
Secretary of Fur Seal Commission.

PALO ALTO, CAL., Oct. 7, 1897.

WEBSTER ON ANNEXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking forward to the question of annexation, soon to be met and answered

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in the upper branch of Congress, it may not be without interest to look back to the counsel on the same subject given sixty years ago by one of the master minds of the Senate.

In a speech delivered at Niblo's Saloon in New-York on March 15, 1837, Daniel Webster adverted to one of "the principal subjects of interest" of that time, namely, "the delicate question" whether or not Texas should be annexed. The analogy between the situation of that young nation, as described by him, and the newly made government of Hawaii, is close and striking. Our government had recognized the "independence of the Province" of Texas; "a very few people in a very short time" had "established a government for themselves against the authority of the parent State," which government there was "little probability . . . of the parent State being able to overturn"; the government was, "in form, a copy of our own"; its constitution was "substantially after the great American model."

Such being the likeness between the two cases, let us note Mr. Webster's advice: "I see objections, I think insurmountable objections, to the annexation of Texas to the United States. When the Constitution was formed, it is not probable that either its framers or the people ever looked to the admission of any States into the Union except such as then already existed, and such as should be formed out of Territories then already belonging to the United States." The orator then goes on to distinguish the annexation of Texas from that of Louisiana and Florida, and shows how, in the case of Louisiana, the protection and preservation of commerce on the Mississippi necessitated the control of its outlet to the sea, and how "a similar policy . . . led to the acquisition of Florida." But "the object" of acquiring the latter two States "certainly was not mere extension of territory. Other great political interests were connected with it." "Now," says Mr. Webster, "no such necessity, no such policy, requires the annexation of Texas. The accession of Texas to our territory is not necessary to the full and complete enjoyment of all which we already possess . . . We ought, I think, for numerous and powerful reasons, to be content with our present boundaries." After stating at length the specific objection of the prospective extension of slavery, Mr. Webster concludes: "I see, therefore, no political necessity for the annexation of Texas to the Union; no advantages to be derived from it; and objections to it of a strong and, in my judgment, decisive character."

If this was the attitude of this statesman's mind towards the acquisition of contiguous territory, then, in order to picture the extent of his contemptuous and overwhelming denunciation of the present proposition, there is needed nothing less than the imagination of annexationist Foster, which is capable of conceiving of the benefits to result from annexing an assortment of 100,000 Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, and native and half-breed Hawaiians, and attempting to govern them and to keep the hands of other nations off of them at a distance of 2,000 miles from our Pacific Coast and 5,000 miles from our seat of government. S. R. T.

Lake Forest, Ill., October 9, 1897.

THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: M. A. Leroy-Beaulieu, in the preface to the English edition of his great work on Russia, says that the book is prohibited in the country he describes. This preface is published also in the volume of 'Études Russes et Européennes' printed in May, 1897. The following facts may be of interest to your readers: Visitors to the recent International Medical Congress in Moscow were given copies of the second edition (1897) of a 'Guide du Voyageur à Moscou, par A. et F. Tastevin,' published in Moscow and bearing the usual note of permission by the "censure" dated July 26, 1897. In this the reader is advised to consult, among others, the work which M. Leroy-Beaulieu says is interdicted. It may be thought that the reference is intended for those living outside of Russia, but the writer met several Russians who knew the book and denied the prohibition. There are several copies of the work in the Imperial Library in St. Petersburg, and the librarian assured me that he knew of no prohibition of the reading of 'L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes.'—Yours truly, G. Dock.

Ann Arbor, Mich., October 12, 1897.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. announce 'Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1861,' edited, with notes, by William MacDonald, Professor of History and Political Economy at Bowdoin College. The documents number ninety in all, given in full or in significant extracts, and attended by a select bibliography. They have also in a forward state 'Essays on the Civil War and Reconstruction, and Kindred Topics,' by William A. Dunning, Professor of History at Columbia University, and 'Yankee Ships and Sailors: Tales of 1812,' by James Barnes, with illustrations.

Henry Holt & Co. will bring out at once 'The Evolution of the Idea of God: An Inquiry into the Origins of Religion.'

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will add to their "What is Worth While Series" an address by Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, entitled 'Why Go to College?'

'The Lovers' Shakspere,' a compilation by Chloe Blakeman Jones, and 'A Group of French Critics,' by Mary Fisher, are to be issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

The first of the calendar books, intimating a new year, to reach us, possess a marked originality, but appeal to quite different tastes. Mr. Francis H. Allen's 'Nature's Diary' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a dainty volume of which the chief aim is to note the approximate dates of the coming of birds and flowers (about Boston, according to the compiler's observation, but doubtless for a larger area). But this is accompanied by pertinent extracts from Thoreau, Burroughs, and other apostles of outdoor study, and by some charming half-tones of landscape, flora, and wild fauna. The design has been extremely well executed, and the blanks under each date allow the owner of the book to enter the natural appearances for himself.

Very different is Mr. John Osborne Austin's 'Roger Williams Calendar' (Providence, R. I.: The Author), dedicated "to all who grant 'permission of differing consciences.'" It carries a brief extract from Williams's writings for every day in the year, and is ingeniously contrived in the fore and after portions to give an outline of the apostle's life on both sides of the water. The burden of the middle portion is soul liberty. Incidentally it is made clear wherein Williams differed from the Quakers as to the domain of civil authority. Much of this matter is pithy, and one thinks of Franklin when he reads (November 18), "I fear the event of the justest war." Under April 11 we meet with the proverbial quotation "that God could have made, but God never did make, a better berry [than the strawberry]." The use of nautical imagery and illustration is noticeable, and is hardly revealed in Mr. Austin's analytic index of topics. The host of Roger Williams's posterity (among whom the compiler himself may, perhaps, be reckoned) will find here a pious memorial.

It is but a few months since we reviewed at some length Messrs. Blashfield and Hopkins's four-volume edition of Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters.' The publishers, Messrs. Scribner, have now issued a welcome popular edition from the same plates, but omitting the photogravures. This omission need not be too greatly regretted, as the originals were, if only from their scale, of unequal excellence, according to the subject, and the purchaser of this cheaper set can enjoy the pleasure of acquiring examples to suit his taste. It is, as we said last March, with all its shortcomings, the best English edition in existence.

Mr. G. Barnett Smith's account of American colonization ("The Romance of Colonization: The United States,' Dodd, Mead & Co.), is neither a remarkably learned nor a remarkably accurate piece of work. At the same time it chronicles the chief voyages and discoveries with clearness, adding thereto the sweet sauce of rhetoric. Copious quotation is a prominent feature of the book, and is, indeed, carried so far that Mr. Smith appears in the guise of an editor almost more than in that of an author.

Prof. Stephenson's 'Syllabus of Lectures on European History' (The Inland Publishing Co.) is a better performance than, after a perusal of the preface, one would expect it to be. "Dreaming of brown eyes that flashed with subtle, changeful meaning" verges much too closely on the poetical for the context in which it occurs, and when one turns the page the following sentence gives rise to some apprehension: "No one should ever attempt the serious study of history without some great Historical Atlas like Sprooner's [*sic*] at his elbow." Numerous orthographical antics also appear in the body of the text. However, if one does not lay undue stress on minor slips, he will find a good deal to commend. The headings show care in analysis, and the bibliographical hints ought to help many students whose knowledge of history is still in the undergraduate stage.

Birmingham is fortunate in possessing in the dean of the medical faculty of Mason College a public-spirited scholar of wide intellectual interests. Dr. Windle has recently been giving a course of public lectures on 'Life in Early Britain,' out of which he has made a little book that will serve as an excellent popular introduction to pre-Norman archæology (Putnams). There is nothing original in it: the author relies on a few leading authorities, like Sir John Evans, Prof. Boyd Dawkins, and Dr. Beddoes for the pre-historic portion, Prof. Rhys for the Celts, Wright and Gomme for Roman antiquities, Seebohm for the Anglo-Saxons; and he quotes freely from them, often two or three pages at a

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time. But it will be convenient to a good many people to have things thus brought together. Mr. Windle writes in an interesting way and with an enthusiasm that ought to be contagious; and the book contains a large number of really useful illustrations.

A task for which intelligent women possessed of leisure are especially qualified has been performed by Mrs. Susan Whitney Dimock in 'Births, Marriages, Baptisms and Deaths from the Records of the Town and Churches in Coventry, Conn., 1711-1844' (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.). Though printed for private distribution among societies and libraries, it will doubtless attract not a few would-be purchasers in this period of ancestral piety in research. Coventry was the birthplace of Nathan Hale, but the family name does not figure very largely in these records. Mrs. Dimock has achieved her laudable main object, "that they may be preserved from the further ravages of time." The book is handsomely printed, and the several divisions are summed up in an index.

The third edition of Prof. Albert H. Chester's 'Catalogue of Minerals, with their Chemical Composition and Synonyms' has just been issued by John Wiley & Sons. The catalogue is alphabetical, and includes all the names of species and varieties which had been determined up to the date of publication.

The growth of Berlin, no less remarkable than that of any American city, is amply described in two volumes entitled 'Berlin und seine Eisenbahnen 1846 bis 1896,' issued by order of the Minister of Public Works. The city was founded in 1225. Four centuries later it had only 6,000 inhabitants. In 1712 it had 61,000; in 1804 it had 180,000; in 1845, 322,626. In 1861 the half-million mark was reached, and in 1877 the million mark, while in 1889 the number was 1,528,712. Immigration had much to do with this rapid increase; in 1885 only 42 per cent. of the population were born Berliners. Within the last few years the increase in the city proper has perceptibly declined, owing to the tendency of the inhabitants to make use of bettered transportation facilities for living in suburbs, most of which are not yet incorporated as parts of the capital. Thus, while the city has gained only 98,341 souls during the last five years (as against 263,507 during the preceding five years), the suburbs gained 166,081 as against 104,961 in the preceding quinquennium. Notwithstanding this centrifugal tendency, the population still is more crowded than in any other large German city, the number of persons to a hectare being 745, while in Breslau it is 443, Dresden 318, Cologne 305, Munich 248, etc. Yet there has been an improvement, for between 1840 and 1893 the number of inhabitants was quintupled, and that of buildings (larger buildings, too) septupled. Property is worth twelve times what it was in 1840. State and municipal taxes have nearly doubled since 1872.

The Old South Historical Society of Boston has for its latest sheaf of "Old South Leaflets" such as were edited to illustrate the current course of summer lectures on the anti-slavery struggle. They range from a skilful exemplification of the contents of the first number of the *Liberator* to the first Lincoln and Douglas debate, taking in Theodore Parker, Whittier, Mrs. Stowe, Sumner, and John Brown by the way. The season now opening will embrace monthly lectures on the Legacy of Slavery, but without inclusion of the evils that have flowed from the civil war in the effect of power on the dominant party, the increase of the public debt, the barter of patriotism, the currency manias, etc., etc. A bibliography for the purposes of study is already being circulated with the programme.

We learn from the *Periodical* (which is always an attractive piece of printing) that the Long Vacation in the English universities had its origin in the occasional removal (commencing in the fifteenth century) of the entire collegiate body to some other place during the summer time on account of the prevalence of the plague and the insanitary condition of the town. In 1555 leave of absence for a month was given in August to the majority of Fellows of Magdalen College on account, not of the pestilence, but of the scarcity of corn in Oxford, and in 1584 it was one of the complaints against President Humphrey for misgovernment that lectures in the vacation were read only *pro forma* and without general knowledge of those in college. At length leave of absence came to be granted "ex more," but until within the last twelve or fifteen years the form of asking for it (and paying a small fine for it) still lingered.

The British Navy League have arranged with the proprietors of the London *Times* for 50,000 copies of a reproduction, in facsimile, of the issue of the *Times* in 1805 that contained the details of the battle of Trafalgar. These copies are to be put into circulation on Trafalgar Day, the 21st of October, when the Nelson column, in Trafalgar Square, will again be decorated. Mr. Wilson, editor of the *Journal* of the Navy League, and Admiral Lord Charles Beresford are writing, in coöperation, a popular Life of Nelson.

La Diplomatie (Paris, 50 Boulevard Haussmann), in its tenth number, appears quite settled in its grooves. Its correspondence continues large, and it is well abreast of the time in its portraits and sketches of men of the day. In the present number we may mention those of the King and Queen of Siam; of the Prince Napoleon who figured in the late Russian army manœuvres for President Faure; of M. Alfred Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction; and of M. Joseph Antoine Bouvard, director of the construction of the Exposition of 1900. A former Minister of Commerce has some remarks on the international dissensions aroused by "le Bill Dingley." The drama and the exchange form part of the miscellany.

It is being urged from various sides, and with increasing force, that the solution of the whole secondary-school question in Germany may ere long be found in the organization of the so-called Reform-Gymnasia with a common basis *(gemeinsamer Unterbau)*, deferring the study of Latin to the last six years of the course. Twenty-one of these institutions have thus far been opened in the various states of the empire. The first class to graduate will be, four years hence, that of the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfort. Dr. Treutlein, director of the Reform-Gymnasium at Karlsruhe, reports, after repeated visits to the Frankfort school, that the pupils in Ober-Tertia, after two years' work in Latin, with ten recitations weekly, have fully caught up with those of other gymnasia who commenced the language three years earlier. It is interesting in this connection to note from a report by Dr. Lange to the Association for School Reform (see *Pädagogisches Archiv*, August, 1897), that the number of pupils in Prussian secondary schools pursuing courses without Latin has risen in eleven years from 12,800 to 42,452, while in the same period the number of pupils in Latin has fallen from 120,000 to 114,000.

A paper on the first stages in the development of the Pedipalps has been presented to the Paris Academy of Sciences by Mlle. Sophie Pereyaslawzewa. In a nation which can grapple with such proper names as this, science ought to present little difficulty even to its women.

The Canadian regulations governing placer mining along the Yukon River and its tributaries in the Northwest Territories, as well as the new Canadian tariff, are printed in the Consular Reports for October. There is also an appeal by our Minister to Siam. Mr. J. Barrett, for the establishment of an Asiatic Commercial Museum at San Francisco to further American business interests in eastern Asia as the Philadelphia Commercial Museum does in South America and Africa.

—The new edition of Spenser's 'Faerie Queene,' published in two volumes by Messrs. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan), is a splendid setting of that "most precious jewel of their coronet" which Gibbon bade the Spencers rate above the trophies of Marlborough. Spenser is emphatically a poets' poet. Like Milton, he has had "fit audience, though few." But he is even less read by the general public than is Milton, for obvious reasons. The general reader does not take kindly to long poems, and the unwieldy twelve books of the 'Faerie Queene' are but a fragment of what their author had in mind to write. To arouse our interest in his characters the poet must himself be interested. Spenser's countless knights and ladies, rescuing and oppressed, drop out of the poet's mind and out of the poem with an ease that damps our curiosity as to their bewildered careers. His fluctuating purpose might well be noted by those literary leaders of a forlorn hope who, like Andrew Lang, refuse to admit, with the German critics, that inconsistencies of plot and looseness of development are arguments against the unity of authorship of the Homeric poems. Yet another cause of Spenser's unpopularity lies in the fact that the 'Faerie Queene' ranges on ideal heights and in breathless bowers that ordinary humanity dreams not of and is profoundly bored to contemplate; for allegory, with the immortal exception of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' has never failed to weary the ordinary mind. So it is that the 'Faerie Queene' ranks among those masterpieces of literature which there are few to praise and very few to read. The edition before us, with its sumptuous cover and hand-made paper, makes a direct appeal to the book-fancier. Its general get-up suggests, and was doubtless inspired by, the productions of the Kelmscott Press. Mr. Fairfax Muckley, the illustrator, belongs to the small band of disciples of Burne-Jones and Morris known in England as the "Birmingham School," whose services in one or two cases William Morris enlisted for his Kelmscott editions. If we compare this edition of the 'Faerie Queene' with the Kelmscott Chaucer illustrated by Burne-Jones, or the 'Shepheardе's Calender' with Gaskin's designs, we see how strong has been the influence of Burne-Jones on the work of the

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two younger artists. This is especially true of Mr. Muckley's flat, decorative, full-page designs and borders, with their heavy masses of black and white and their strict conventionality. We miss the beautiful "golden type" of Morris's press in Messrs. Dent's edition, where the type used seems too thin and poor for the heavy black of the illustrations and the decorative lettering. Prof. Hales of Kings College, London, has written a short and sympathetic introduction to the poem. The text and glossary are those of Dr. R. Morris.

—A new edition of the translation of Shakspere by Mr. Bikélas is certainly a healthy sign of revival at Athens—a sign that the Greeks have not lost their interest in the things of the spirit that endure and must finally prevail. We hear of no demand for Shakspere in Constantinople. Mr. Bikélas here proves that there is no language in Europe better fitted to cope with the heights and the difficulties of Shakspere than the modern Greek; and this is because, while it has behind it a great tradition, it is still a language in the making, fluid and capable of new coinage and picturesque phrases. It can still draw upon the unequalled resources of the ancient literature for the making of new words, even though the freedom and daring of the Aeschylean and Sophoclean syntax—a match for any flight of Shaksperian usage—have vanished. Yet how vital and close to the modern speech are these great pioneers in the drama, is shown by the frequent illustrative quotations and parallel passages with which Mr. Bikélas has enriched his notes. But the language, as he uses it, is not fast bound to the chains of a literary tradition. It is nourished and revived by the fresh springs of the popular speech, those vital sources which Solomos and Calvos and Tertsetis have drawn upon, and which the coming Greek poets will surely more and more avail themselves of. As to the form of his work, the translator has adopted the popular narrative and ballad metre which long custom had familiarized to the ears of his countrymen. At first blush it seems impossible to match Shakspere's subtly modulated line with a measure which counts and moves like the English "A captain bold of Halifax, who lived in country quarters." This is a rhythm that, even in the ancient Greek comedy, had vulgar and trivial associations. But the modern ballad-makers have rescued it from such associations, and have rendered it capable of eloquence and of fiery enthusiasm. There is something very dramatic in the abrupt apostrophes and transitions of the best Klepthic ballads; and to the modern Greek their rhythm is associated with the highest gamut of emotion, with notes of poignant pathos and passion, of triumph and despair. There is another propriety in the choice of this line. It may seem too long to render our blank verse of five accents; but the Greek is so polysyllabic that the fifteen-syllable line by no means gives the translator too much elbow-room. *Lear's* "jester," or fool, spreads in Greek to Gelotopoios.

—As a rule Mr. Bikélas follows the original, line for line, with great freedom and naturalness, and with best success in passages of sustained declamation, as in the soliloquies of *Romeo* or *Macbeth*, and in the passionate harangues of *Shylock*. He is not even dismayed by *Mercutio's* Queen Mab (who became a Nereid and a Magissa), though he does confess his sense of relief when the difficult *Mercutio* has received his *passado*, and is buried and done with, quoting with feeling Dryden's remark that Shakspere was obliged to get rid of him in self-defence. The Greek hesitates to follow such thronging imagery as—

"Beauty's ensign yet is crimson on thy lips and on thy cheeks,
And death's pale flag is not advanced there."

It turns pale beside the concentrated power and picturesque suggestiveness of—

"What! will the line stretch out to the crack of doom?"

It does not venture after *Lear's* "Rumble thy belly-full"—a piece of syntax which Aeschylus might have dared, but which no literary language in Europe could attempt. On the other hand, the modern Greek has a honeyed store of diminutives which can match the tenderness of *Macduff's* "What, all my pretty chickens!" and the endearments of *Juliet's* nurse. For the nurse's prattle and the clownish drollery of *Launcelot Gobbo*, Bikélas draws frankly on his countrymen's vernacular, and proves it beyond cavil of the classical purist a most expressive vehicle for comedy. The translations include the following plays, published at Athens: "Romeo and Juliet," "Othello," "King Lear," "Macbeth," "Hamlet," "The Merchant of Venice." They may be particularly commended, for obvious reasons, to English students of the modern Greek.

—Volume viii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Company) has a more diversified table of contents than any of its predecessors. The number of missions, at first very small, increased with some rapidity towards 1635, and when, in August of that year, Le Jeune sent home his annual report from Notre Dame des Anges, the names of fourteen other fathers were appended to it. The relation of 1636 begins with a strong witness to the interest then taken in New France by political and religious circles at home. The King is well disposed; the Cardinal has sustained and animated the enterprise; the Duc d'Enghien, eldest son of the Prince de Condé, has written with his own hand; the Marquis de Gamache, the chief financial support of the mission, shows no sign of flagging zeal. So far as the French Government and aristocracy are concerned everything is supplied or promised. Full of hope, Le Jeune exclaims: "Dieu soit loüé! tout le ciel de nostre chere Patrie nous promet de favorables influences." Not least among the auspicious tokens was the wish of pious ladies like Mme. de Combalet to found hospitals in New France, and the determination of many orders of nuns to establish themselves at Quebec. Le Jeune hears that at Montmartre the sisters take turns day and night praying for the missionaries' success: "Les Carmelites sont toutes en feu; les Ursulines remplies de zele; les Religieuses de la Visitation n'ont point de paroles assez significatives pour temoigner leur ardeur. Celles de Nostre Dome conjurent qu'on leur donne part aux souffrances qu'il faut subir parmy ces Peuples; & les Hospitalieres crient qu'on les passe dés l'année prochaine." One of these orders, the Ursuline, maintains itself in French Canada to-day, with all the outward signs of prosperity. In the mission field the prospect was less disheartening than it had often been before. Champlain had established a new settlement at Three Rivers, where Le Jeune was free to extend the labors of his band. He had been there in person and was charmed with the situation. He is restrained from describing its beauties only by fear of being accounted tedious. Altogether, his mood is optimistic. Julien Perrault reports good progress from Cape Breton, where he has found the natives willing to paint the cross on chest, arms, and legs, even without being asked to do so. They are also decent, and not thievish. Finally, Brébeuf, having conducted a fairly large band of fathers and lay Frenchmen to the Huron country, writes fully of the settlement at Ihonatiria. Many had been their hardships at the portages in ascending the river and dire the diseases which they found ravaging the natives. But over against discomfort and danger was the solace that the people had welcomed back their "Echom" and had given aid in building a house, or what passed for one there. The baptism of many was being delayed only till fit religious instruction might be given. Everything considered, the years 1634-'36 were a time of special encouragement to the Jesuits; one of the few bright spots in the history of their efforts to convert the North American Indian.

—A little pamphlet bearing the title 'An Egyptian Alphabet for the Egyptian People' has recently been issued from the Landi Press, Florence. Its object is to advocate the general use for Egyptian Arabic of the alphabet elaborated and used by the late Spitta Bey in his 'Grammatik des arabischen Vulgärdialectes von Aegypten.' To that book, published in 1880, the Arabist needs no introduction, and for the non-Arabist it may be enough to say that it was the first, and remains easily the best, careful and detailed study of a modern Arabic dialect. It was the dream and hope of Spitta's far too short life that this alphabet, developed by him from the Roman, might come to be used generally in Egypt, and that for the literature in the modern dialect which is bound to grow up if there is again to be any living Egyptian literature, it might push aside the over-complicated and yet hopelessly insufficient alphabet of classical Arabic. He adapted his alphabet strictly to the needs of modern Egyptian. It will not render the classical language, nor even any of the other modern dialects; but, for the Egyptian people, there can be no doubt that its general adoption would be an almost unmixed blessing. As a single instance, the plays and verses of Mohammad Osmân Galâl would be far more generally intelligible to his fellow-countrymen, and for the Western student the elaborate transliterations and comments of Vollers, Socin, and Sobernheim would be unnecessary. As it is, the reading of them, both for the native and for the foreigner, is two-thirds reading and one-third guessing from the context. A poet of the people, he yet fails to reach the people. The pamphlet explains the alphabet in detail, gives illustrative readings—sentences, verses, stories—a sketch of Spitta's life and some polemic (somewhat bitter in places) against other systems. A number of separate cards and leaflets are evidently intended to spread popularly a knowledge of the alphabet. There is no space here to consider it in detail; only it must be said, in spite of the authority of the brothers Grimm, that some arrangement for capitals is essential. To this almost forlorn hope all good

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luck should be wished. Kipling's Sergeant Whatisname is putting stiffening into Pharaoh; can he also put into him a decent alphabet?

GOVERNOR GREENHALGE.

The Life and Work of Frederic Thomas Greenhalge, Governor of Massachusetts. By James Ernest Nesmith. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1897.

The memoir of the late Gov. Greenhalge is not too long for his family and the circle of his intimate friends, but is much too bulky and unweeded for the public who might have been attracted and enlightened by a condensed and pithy narrative. His career had its typical and instructive features that deserve modest commemoration. He belonged to a type of public servants which on the whole ought to prevail and multiply. He came of a sturdy English stock which did not despise culture and the amenities of life. He inherited from his father a strong character and a genuine love for books, for nature, and for art. At school and at Harvard College, he nourished a native passion for literature and oratory which was eagerly shared by his brilliant companions, and which is not always replaced by the most painstaking compulsory instruction. In vain sometimes does the professor of rhetoric lead unwilling colts to drink at the Pierian spring.

At the time when he was growing up, our legislation was still influenced by debate, and debating-clubs had an immense vogue in our colleges chiefly because the debater's talent was considered a short cut to political advancement. The study of economics, of jurisprudence, of social and political history was not generally thought a necessary equipment of the legislator, and was certainly not systematically included in Greenhalge's outfit. But his rhetorical preparation was not a mere gift of the gab; it was based on an ardent study of the great English orators, a wide and intelligent reading of English literature and of history. To this were added the education and experience of a lawyer. These gifts and talents he never for a moment applied to office-seeking as a livelihood, or to ferreting his way to political advancement. Though he quite early nourished vague aspirations and ambitions for public life and service, he had not the least tincture of the pertinacious spirit of the political weasel.

His career is, in fact, when one has followed it through the windings of Mr. Nesmith's discursive pages, an impressive homily on the artificial perplexities that beset good government just now—the hindrances that stand in the way of securing good servants for the nation, the superfluous labors that are laid on their shoulders, the slender rewards that befall a life wasted before its time by the friction and inertia of the political machine. The machine spares only those who grind with it; it is fatal to all but the toughest of those who dare to block its wheels.

Greenhalge was not made of porcelain—far from it; he possessed a robust constitution, unspoiled by dissipation, and wholesome tastes and habits. But he had nerves and sentiment, a grain of poetic susceptibility, a taste for quiet and solitude, for nature, and the society of his family and his books. He had, moreover, convictions and independence. But his tastes and his convictions alike were wofully crossed by his ambitions. He was disgusted with the life which he saw in Washington, the struggle, the venality, the baseness of office-seekers, whose ideas and methods he describes in a characteristic article published in the *North American Review*.

"I miss my calm summer life," he writes to his wife from Washington. "We shall have a grand row over the Silver bill, which came from the crazy Senate yesterday. Our only hope is to stave it off until we can get a reasonable bill. I am sick of all the small and large jealousies of this life. The most trivial things are seized upon, to exalt one man and to lower another; but I think my conscience is clear of envy, hatred, or malice to anybody. I am planning for nothing. I am not a politician. My life here seems aimless. I am compelled to go through a deal of routine work—offices, patronage, influence, favors, documents, information; and I am told that this is the true business of life and real greatness. I am a dreamer, an unpractical man, because I do not wallow in the slough of personal gain and swap favors with office-seekers. The meanness of men has no limit. I find no real pride, no self-respect—but fawning, threatening, lying, where offices are in question."

His honest spirit was equally offended by the claptrap of politics. He was an Edmunds delegate in 1884 to the convention that nominated Blaine. Of this again he writes:

"A pandemonium without the least necessity. . . . All for show and humbug. . . . Of all ridiculous performances the 'demonstrations' for Blaine and Arthur were entitled to the palm—grown-up men acting like lunatics, carrying about a helmet, a 'floral tribute' to Blaine, and men and women and boys screeching in a maniacal manner during the progress. And these are the kind of people who are to name the chief magistrate! God save the Republic!"

These intimate letters admit us behind the scenes, and reveal a man who has no stomach for the company he is obliged to keep. He asks himself occasionally whether the game is worth the candle; and these are questions which a man must not ask too often when he is in the midst of the struggle—they tend to paralyze his action. Yet in action and on the stage, Greenhalge showed himself prompt, able, and courageous. "As to harmony," he said as Mayor of Lowell to his first Board of Aldermen, "I don't care a straw for a man who, having convictions, is afraid to express them." He took the very same tone in the House of Representatives many years afterward as chairman of the committee on civil service, when both Democrats and Republicans showed a desire to defeat the Civil-Service bill in a roundabout way by withholding the necessary appropriations:

"For God's sake, let us have some men in this republic who have the courage of their convictions. I respect even the utterances of ex-President Cleveland; they show courage, whether these utterances are in favor of free trade, in favor of civil-service reform, or against free coinage. If a majority of either side of this house desire to wipe this law from the statute-book, let it be done in a manly fashion, and let those who do it take the responsibility. The people care nothing about parliamentary practice. We are here after things of substance, not after matters of form."

There is a genuineness in these expressions which is substantiated by certain well-known facts in Gov. Greenhalge's history. The best known of these was his behavior when he encountered the Swift mob of riotous workmen, who entered the State House clamoring for improvised employment. His courage, good sense, and right feeling on that occasion won him high opinions, and were based on fixed convictions as to the perils of socialism. This was no sudden outbreak: *Nemo repente integerrimus fuit.* The same courage and conscience were shown in his veto of the Soldiers' Preference bill, in his contempt for the opposition of the A. P. A., and perhaps still more strongly in an incident less widely known. This was the case of certain officials of the Old Colony Railway, who, while attempting by force to prevent a grade crossing, had contributed to a street riot, and were sentenced to a term in the House of Correction. They were men of respectability, one of them the Governor's personal friend. The pressure for a pardon was extreme, and it was recommended by the Council; but the petition was refused by the Governor in a message replete with good law, with sound and dispassionate argument and conscientious firmness—a lesson that Massachusetts might well commend to those Governors of States who use their official position to incite to manslaughter and lynch-law.

With such traits and such a record, it is worth while to observe how Mr. Greenhalge was treated by the "machine" of his adopted city. As to this point, we quote the striking statement of Judge Lawton, which we believe to be absolutely correct, and based on an intimate knowledge of the facts and the parties concerned:

"At this time the hostility to him of the Lowell management became apparent. If it ever ceased, it did not cease for a quarter of a century. Admitted to be the most brilliant young man in Lowell, it was at least twenty years before he was permitted to represent a larger constituency than that of Lowell. The captains of tens in the ward in which he lived long opposed his selection as a Representative to the General Court of Massachusetts. . . . Greenhalge they all 'admired,' but they feared he was not 'practical.' The real objection was that he was absolutely independent of everybody's control, and they wished nobody to be in any position of power whom they could not command and be sure that he would obey."

There is just one more touch we should add to this sketch of the life and trials of the servant of democracy. As Governor, Mr. Greenhalge had engagements to speak every day of the year, Sundays included. If Puritanic sentiment relieved him from speaking on Sunday, it imposed double duty on week days to make up the tale. About sixty of these occasions were official; but the rest were balls, banquets, fairs, what-not—all the hand-shaking functions which a sovereign democracy imposes on its official "slave of the lamp." "On all these occasions," to quote Mr. Nesmith, "he spoke with unfailing eloquence"—a frothy eloquence, occasionally, that chronicled small beer; yet, for a man who was always on tap, the quality of his brew was sound and wholesome. He had a knack of speaking, and was pursued by the Nemesis which in our country avenges such a gift.

The portrait which Mr. Nesmith has buried under a sepulchral mound of vagrant disquisition, is really valuable because it points a moral. Here, on the whole, was the sort of man whom any government should try to ensnare into its service—able, honorable, disinterested, possessed of a certain fineness of fibre and sentiment which is apt to go with a sensitive conscience. In spite of a sound constitution, good habits, and good

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health, he was lost to his family, his friends, and the State ten or twenty years before his due time. These years were wasted mainly by the friction of opposition to the "machine," by the pressure and demands of office-seekers, by the wear and tear of superfluous functions, and doubtless also by the fume and fret of forced companionship with men who wield the muck-rake. It is quite true that *noblesse oblige*. It is right enough that public men should spend their lives for the State, should carry loads up hill, and, if need be, die in harness. But it is not necessary that they should wear checks and carry sacks of chaff. In his native country, as things are now, we venture to say, Mr. Greenhalge might have become a member of Parliament or the Governor of a province; but in England he could probably have lived to serve his country twenty years longer because his forces would have been in every way economized. He need have wasted no time on office-seekers in a country which has had for half a century the tradition of a civil-service system; he need not have wasted strength on "machines," because the English people, as a rule, govern themselves without the intervention of invisible and irresponsible "rings" to paralyze the will of their voters; and, finally, he would have worked in the company of men of his own kind, because, in the main, England still maintains a habit and policy of attracting her choicest and ablest minds to the service of the state.

HOMMEL'S APPEAL TO THE MONUMENTS.

The Ancient Hebrew Tradition as Illustrated by the Monuments: A Protest against the Modern School of Old Testament Criticism. By Dr. Fritz Hommel, Professor of Semitic Languages at the University of Munich. Translated from the German by Edmund McClure, M.A., and Leonard Crosslé. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1897. Pp. xvi, 350.

Some apology is needed for a long review of this book. Intrinsically it does not deserve it. It is especially addressed to "theologians" "who understand Hebrew" (p. 97), and to them it might safely be left without comment. But it has the general reader as well very much in mind, and has been loudly heralded. Its publication is a movement in the campaign which archæology is in these days unwisely made to undertake against Biblical criticism. It seems to be meant seriously, and the situation perhaps makes it worth while to take it so.

Doubtless the testimony of the monuments should command respect. Its value is real and great. But monumental evidence needs to be understood, weighed, and applied, and the process is difficult. Results are to be reached cautiously and by degrees—not by hasty dashes. Fact is to be distinguished from conjecture, probability from possibility, the reasonable from the absurd. Rigid proof, and that alone, is to be admitted as a ground of confident assertion. Sobriety, calm nerves, and a disciplined mind are essential. In these respects the book before us is singularly deficient. On the other hand, it is not too much to ask that Orientalists who deal with Biblical questions should have some training in Biblical exegesis and criticism. But Hommel's attempts at independent interpretation of the Old Testament are wild in the extreme. His exegetical and critical powers are untrained. Under such conditions success is impossible.

The main purpose of the book is to show, by an appeal to the monuments, the accuracy of the Hebrew records, the substantial Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch, and, specifically, the early date of the Priestly document. It is written with great confidence and superiority of tone, not to say supercilliousness. Much is no doubt accounted for by the zeal of a new convert. Hommel himself speaks of being "in 1890 still under the spell of Wellhausen" (p. 308). Yet, though thus explicable, it is not excusable. A man in late middle life, who so recently held opposite views, has hardly the right to be contemptuous toward those who still hold them. But, leaving manner aside, it might be thought that he is a stronger witness because he has himself been thus convinced. This would be a fair inference if he were, in general, a scholar of stable opinions. He is, on the contrary, a man of very fickle opinions. His views change frequently within the compass of a single book. So in the present one. Thus, "achlamah" (name of a jewel) is on p. 204 a pure Arabic tribal name; on pp. 281, 291, it is the Egyptian *eknuôme*. "Assyria" (Hos. ix, 3) is the well-known empire on p. 11, but "the land of Shur" on p. 263. On p. 287 the final recension of Judges and of the Jehovistic narrative was made in the time of the northern kingdom; on p. 307 "it is not at all impossible" that this occurred in the time of the judges. "Gaza" and "'Ibr naharân" are "interchangeable terms" on p. 251, but on p. 323 an opinion of Glaser is quoted with approval according to which Gaza "is certainly not identical with 'Ibr Naharân." On p. 195 we read that *ebir-nâri* "the (far) bank of the river" means "probably the Jordan"; on p. 254 ff. we learn that the river is the Euphrates, and that the phrase denotes Mesopotamia, although it "may, at a pinch, have come to be equivalent to . . . the country on the other side of the Jordan," while on p. 323 (again under Glaser's influence) we are informed that it is "*nowhere* used of Mesopotamia, but always of the *western* bank of the Euphrates" (italics not ours).

These illustrations could be multiplied from Hommel's writings. It is evident that such changeableness deprives the author of the title of a steadfast witness. It is to be explained from another fact, likewise derogatory to any high claims for his book, viz., that he seems to have no conception of what constitutes proof, and hence has no security for any opinion. In illustration of this defect of the power of deduction and of induction we may take the interpretation of *Samsu* in certain Babylonian names as = *sumu-su* = *Shumu-shu* = Arab. *sumu-hu*, "his name" (pp. 101 f.); or his jaunty affirmation that the language of the Aramæans "was undoubtedly, in Jacob's time, merely a dialect of Arabic. What we now call Aramaic," he says, "did not come into existence till a much later date." Further, in dealing with Gen. xiv., Hommel rashly ventures to affirm on the basis of a (misunderstood) passage in one of the Tel el-Amarna letters, and of Heb. vii., 3 (!), that v. 18 originally ended with the words, "and had not inherited the kingdom from his father and his mother" (p. 157)! He also believes "that there are ample grounds for assuming" that "Melchisedek" and "Salem" should be read for "the King of Sodom" in vv. 17, 21, and that the words "And Abram said to the King of Sodom" should be omitted at the beginning of v. 22, as

"inconsistent with the general sense. In the invocation of El, 'Elyôn is only rightly intelligible when placed in the mouth of Melchisedek. That Melchisedek should have desired possession of the prisoners is no more than we should expect; for after the death of the King of Sodom and Gomorrah he must naturally have regarded himself as master of the Jordan. Moreover, it is quite possible that some of his own people may have been included among the prisoners rescued by Abraham, etc., etc."

This is puerile. Again, in the course of an argument relating to "Ashur" as = "Shur," he perpetrates the following:

"In dealing with Deut. xxviii. 68 (on p. 11), I have already had occasion to point out that Hosea ix., 3, is merely a quotation from this passage. When, however, Hosea, after giving the words of Deuteronomy, viz., 'But Ephraim shall return to Egypt,' adds, 'and they shall eat unclean food in Ashur [Assyria],' it seems extremely probable—in view of the facts brought forward in the present chapter—that this supplementary clause formed part of the original text of Deuteronomy [!], and was only omitted later owing to its having been confounded with Assyria. The principles of parallelism require that the Ashur in question—even though Hosea may have understood it as equivalent to Assyria—should be some region in the immediate vicinity of Egypt, and there is of course no other locality which complies with this condition except the land of Shur," etc. (p. 263).

And with stuff like this it is proposed to overthrow modern criticism!

For his main thesis he relies much on the view that in Abraham's time there was a large Arabian element in Babylonia and a dynasty of Arabian origin on the throne. This shown, he accounts for Abraham's monotheism as an inheritance from Arabia, and explains alleged resemblances between proper names in the Priestly document and those of ancient Arabia by bringing the Priestly document back to a time when Arabian influence was still felt. He thinks that the Hebrews still spoke an Arabic dialect when they entered Canaan, what we know as Hebrew having been adopted by them from the conquered Canaanites. Hence he infers, again, that certain Arabian peculiarities in the documents show that they were originally written before the conquest.

With regard to the "Arabian" dynasty, it may be said that the appearance of some of the names makes an Arabian origin not improbable; nothing is gained by attempting to force reluctant names into this category, as Hommel does. Neither is it improbable that the Hebrew migration actually set out from Babylonia. If we accept the historic personality of Abraham, and the narratives concerning him in Gen. xi. and xiv., we must agree that the migration started during the time assigned to the "Arabian dynasty." But it is a long step from this to the positions that Abraham drew his monotheism from Arabian sources, and that Old Testament personal names resembling old Arabian names prove the high antiquity of the documents containing them. Arabists must determine how far Hommel is justified in regarding *Ilu* as so nearly exclusive a divine element in old Arabian names. It is probable that he exaggerates here. But its presence in the names does not prove Arabian monotheism, any more than *ilu* in Babylonian prayers and hymns proves Babylonian

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monotheism. It may be only a characteristic way of denoting one or another god. In view of the fact that the Arabians who used the names were demonstrably and avowedly polytheistic, such an explanation is at least quite as probable as the view that these names point back to an earlier monotheistic age. Besides, we are not at all sure of the very ancient date of the inscriptions which contain them. An age beyond 1000 B. C. is not claimed by Hommel for the Sabæan inscriptions, and these are therefore too late to tell us anything about the times of Abraham or of Moses. The Minæan inscriptions are usually thought to be somewhat later; Glaser, followed (changeably) by Hommel, thinks them earlier. "I now confidently believe," Hommel says, "that the South Arabian kingdom of the Minæan dynasty must, at the very latest, have flourished in the period between Solomon and Moses." But we can build nothing on this "confident belief" unsupported by evidence. Even if the inscriptions be early, however, and even if the proper names point back to monotheism, they prove nothing concerning the date of the Priestly document. For (1) the tradition and habit of such name-formation might be persistent for centuries, as Hommel's theory requires him to suppose it was in Arabia itself, so that the occurrence of like formations does not prove like antiquity of documents; in fact, the same name-formation does actually occur in different epochs of the different Semitic peoples, as is well illustrated by Gray in his book, 'Studies in Hebrew Proper Names,' of which Hommel speaks so slightingly in his preface; (2) the name-formations of the Priestly document resemble in various respects those of admittedly late documents, such as Chronicles, Ezra, and Nehemiah, as Gray also convincingly shows.

The supposition that the Hebrews spoke an Arabic dialect before the conquest of Canaan may or may not be true. We know very little that bears on the question. Certainly it is not proved by Hommel's argument. The points on which he depends are (1) the evidence of proper names again, which contain some stems not found in our Hebrew, but found in Arabic; (2) "Many other peculiarities of their language" (p. 274)—the only instance he gives is *man-hû* (Ex. xvi. 15); and (3) the use of the letter *He* (*h*) to denote the lengthening of a vowel, which Hommel claims—not without challenge—to be peculiar to the Minæan, Moabite, and Hebrew, indicating, he thinks, an employment by Moabites and Hebrews of the Minæan script. But, as to (1), our ancient Hebrew literature is too limited for us to say that stems not found in it did not exist in Hebrew, and there is always the possibility of borrowing. (2.) An isolated peculiarity is no safe evidence. (3.) Mordtmann, who challenges the statement that the Minæan *He* in the cases referred to is a mere graphic sign, is entitled by character and services to at least as much consideration as Hommel is! Such being the status of the evidence, it is plain that it does not permit us "to assume confidently that a . . . not inconsiderable portion of the tradition incorporated in Genesis had already been reduced to writing [in the Minæan script] in the time of Moses" (p. 275), or sympathize in the "satisfaction" felt by the priests and prophets "at having been able to transfer faithfully, by paraphrase or translation, the holy traditions into the lately cultivated speech and newly adopted characters of Canaan" (p. 304).

There are many other particulars which might be noticed. The book abounds in archæological and Biblical statements. There is a chapter on "Abraham and Khammurabi," which discusses Gen. xiv. at some length, and contains interesting details—not quite new, but freshly elaborated—in regard to probable identifications of the Eastern Kings of that narrative. Khammurabi, Eri-Aku, Kudur-laghamar, and Tudkhulu may very well be their native names, and in their incursion and temporary dominion on Canaanitish soil there is nothing difficult to believe. Positive evidence outside of the Bible for the particular campaign described in Gen. xiv. does not exist. The Tel el-Amarna tablets give ground to infer long-continued Babylonian influence in Canaan, and prove that Jerusalem was a stronghold in the fifteenth century B. C.; but the attempt to torture out of them direct evidence for Melchisedek and his religion is vain. Hommel's hypothesis as to the original form of the latter part of the chapter is flimsy and foolish enough. No one can disprove the assertion that Gen. xiv. is based on a cuneiform original, but it is useless to claim that this is proved by the considerations which Hommel has adduced.

Hommel thinks that Arabian (Minæan) influence once extended over the territory of Moab and of Southern Palestine. This is far from impossible, but we know too little about the matter as yet to warrant the author's confidence. It does not increase our readiness to believe it, to find him on one page (76) arguing that the native name should be read *Ma'ân*, rather than *Ma'în*, because that form explains the local names *Ma'ân* (near Petra) and *Ma'ôn* (twice, in Palestine), and then on another page (271) arguing from the existence of these names to the fact of Minæan influence in the territory where they are found. Moses's obligations to Arabia for the furniture and ceremonial of worship are still more conjectural. The combined evidence of exegesis, literary phenomena, and historical criticism is not to be overturned by guesses like those which meet us here. On p. 280 the author calls attention to a resemblance between the breast-ornament of the Egyptian chief priest and the high priest's breast-plate of Exod. xxviii. Granting the resemblance, however, an isolated phenomenon of this kind admits of various explanations; the most distinctive feature of the breastplate—the Urim and Thummim—is at the best mysterious to us, and of unknown age, and the date of the Priestly document, a very different matter, remains unaffected.

We need not go through the book examining all its proposals. Enough has been given to justify the opinion expressed at the outset. Whatever of solid fact or sound opinion it contains is enwrapped with conjecture and fancy, vitiated by false argument and extravagant claims, or distorted by appeals to prejudice. It is therefore not a good book—not fitted to advance the truth.

As to the translation it is necessary to speak with great plainness. It is one of the worst translations known to us. Its badness consists, not in the slavish following of the foreign idiom—there are many less readable translations—but in unfaithfulness to the original. Not a small class of instances is due to carelessness or ignorance, but these, although depriving the translators' work of any claim to accuracy, are of slight consequence when compared with their conscious and reckless perversions of a text already, one would suppose, reckless enough. Whether such as the next-following belong to this category is perhaps doubtful: "Wenn wirklich Fetischismus und Ahnencult die Anfänge der israelitischen Religion gewesen wären, so würden diese Anfänge in einer prähistorischen Zeit liegen, in welche die Forschung höchstens durch Sprachvergleichung zurückzudringen vermöchte" (G. 291), becomes, with entire and misleading change of emphasis, "Had the beginnings of the Israelite religion really been a mixture of Fetichism and ancestor-worship, these beginnings would have left their impress upon the language and could have been detected by the method of comparative philology" (E. 290). "Während ich noch im Jahre 1890, unter dem Banne Wellhausens mich befindend," etc. (G. 309), is rendered "while in 1890 . . . I brought myself under the displeasure of Wellhausen," etc. (E. 308); this is perhaps merely a gross blunder. More suspicious is this: "Und auch das von Mose berichtete wäre dann in ganz anderem, viel glaubwürdigerem Lichte erschienen" (G. 163), where "von" is shown by the context to be the equivalent of "über," "concerning," but E. 161 gives the phrase "the account drawn up by Moses."

No doubt whatever can attach to the intention of the following misrenderings: "Was zuerst die biblische Chronologie anlangt, so ist es ja richtig, dass dieselbe von David und der Richterzeit an rückwärts nicht den Grad von Sicherheit beanspruchen kann, den man für eine exacte Geschichtsforschung zu verlangen berechtigt ist" (G. 126); by rendering "Sicherheit" "definiteness," and "berechtigt" "inclined" (E. 125), the original sense is perverted in the conservative interest. "Die keine Zeile von Mose . . . als echt gelten lassen" (G. 166); here E. 165, translating "echt" by "genuine," substitutes "the Pentateuch" for "Mose." G. 277 says " . . . machte man das in der semitischen Eigennamenbildung ganz unerklärt dastehende Ab-raham daraus [*i. e.*, out of Abram], und schob Gen. 17, 5 als Deutung dieser Umnennung ein"; of this E. 275 makes "the name was changed into its present form, Abraham, a word which it is *absolutely impossible to explain by any ascertained principle* of Semitic name-formation, and the passage in Gen. xvii. 5 *seems* an interpolation intended to account for the alteration" (italics ours). "Hätten wir über die Richterzeit und die Königsperiode vollständigere und ausführlichere Ueberlieferungen (wie sie, allerdings in ausgeschmückter Form, vielleicht noch dem von den Büchern der Chronika citirten 'Midrasch zum Buch der Könige' teilweis zu Grunde lagen)" (G. 289), becomes in the latter part (E. 288), "such as that which *probably* furnished part of the material, . . . though there *the facts* may have been presented in a more imaginative guise." In G. 308 we read, "höchstens einige mythologisirende Züge in der sogenannten jahvistischen Quelle . . . mögen auf Rechnung Kanaanäischer Beeinflussung zu setzen sein"; but in E. 307, "*seemingly* mythological traces—*the* so-called *anthropomorphisms*—in the Jehovistic source . . . may at most have been owing to Canaanite influences" (italics ours). Worse yet, G. 290, "Die volkstümliche Ueberlieferung stellt gegenüber der priesterlichen gar

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oft eine Vergröberung dar, und hat einen Zug zur Romantik und zu sagenhafter Ausschmückung." This sentence seemed dangerous to the translators, and is omitted entirely; it should precede the words "these two opposing principles" (E. 289). G. 200, "Zuerst erklärte man die Namen der Könige für frei erfunden . . . statt dankbar das Zeugniss der Tradition angunehmen, dass es derartige Könige zu Abraham's Zeit gab . . . Die Denkmäler mussten erst kommen," etc: but E. 199, "*the critics*, instead of thankfully accepting the testimony of tradition which declares that such kings *did* exist in Abraham's time, . . . *had ignominiously to withdraw their false conclusions in presence* of the monuments," etc.; the italicized words (except *did*, whose italics are from Tr.) have absolutely no equivalent in the original.

The translators, we remark, are especially fond of substituting "critics," and "higher critics"—both with and without quotation marks—for more abstract and colorless words, thus giving the dog a bad name in the very act of hanging him. So (besides the above) G. 28=E. 28, G. 29=E. 29, and so, notably, with other perversions for the sake of pungency, G. viii., "Die Denkmäler reden eine zu deutliche Sprache, und schon jetzt höre ich den Flügelschlag einer neuen Zeit, in der man über die Aufstellungen der sogenannten modernen Pentateuchkritik als über einen veralteten Irrtum zur Tagesordnung übergehen wird,"=E. viii., "The monuments speak with no faltering tongue, and already I seem to see signs of the approach of a new era in which men will be able to *brush aside* the *cobweb theories* of the so-called *'higher critics'* of the Pentateuch, and, leaving such old-fashioned errors behind them, *attain to a clearer perception of the real facts*" (!—italics ours). What it is difficult not to call a bare-faced falsification occurs in the rendering of "Oder endlich, da ja doch die Begrüssung und Segnung durch Melkisedek den eigentlichen Zweck der Erzählung des ganzen Kapitels bildete" (G. 191), by, "Or, as a last *hypothesis—if* the real object of the whole narrative in this chapter was to furnish a peg on which to hang [!] Melchisedek's salutation and blessing," E. 190; (italics ours). After instances like these, one hardly notices such depravities of rendering as "by the evidence of the Biblical tradition" (E. 235), for "aus der hebräischen Tradition" (G. 237); "not only from the account which we glean from contemporary inscriptions" (E. 190), for "sowol mit dem, was wir aus den gleichzeitigen Inschriften wissen" (G. 192); "that the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews must have been familiar with *a version in which* verse 18 contained a supplementary clause," etc. (E. 152; italics ours), for "dass der Verfasser des Hebräer-briefes zu Vers 18 noch einen Zusatz . . . gekannt haben muss" (G. 153); "What is there left of Moses beyond a *mere empty* unsubstantial shadow" (E. 286; italics ours), for "was bleibt von Mose übrig als ein wesenloser Schatten" (G. 287). The purpose of all these changes is obvious enough.

Now these details are not trivial. They are very serious indeed. They show a lack of scrupulous regard for truth, and constitute an imposition on English readers. This book is issued simultaneously in German and English. We are entitled to suppose that the English reproduces the German. Any editing of the German to suit the prejudice of English people is excluded by the announcement. Nor does the author's preface to the English edition, nor the translator's note, intimate that any changes have been made. The matter becomes worse when we remember that the English publishing-house is the best-known religious publication society in the world, and that the leading translator is the Secretary of the Society. A member of the same family translated Maspero's 'Struggle of the Nations,' and unfaithfulness has been proved in that case also. It is, therefore, not a question of a single book, but of a habit, and the society which encourages, or even permits, such lack of fidelity is itself brought to the bar of judgment.

Two things, then, this book has established—both of them melancholy, but both important to be known. The first is, that Hommel's work has, for the future, no claim upon serious students of the Bible and of ancient history; and the second, that translations made under the auspices of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge must henceforth be regarded with suspicion.

British Deer and their Horns. By John Giulle Millais, F.Z.S. With 185 text and full-page illustrations, mostly by the Author; also, ten electrogravures and a colored frontispiece by the Author and Sidney Steele, and a series of Drawings by Sir Edwin Landseer which were formerly on the walls of Ardverikie. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This elaborate and beautiful work is addressed to "Experienced Sportsmen and Naturalists," and it has the charm which could come only from the author's skill and knowledge of the two kindred sciences. The naturalist is likely to ignore (or never acquire, if he be not also a sportsman) the experience in the habits and disposition of animals which cannot be gained unless he sees them under the thousand varying aspects of wild life, and learns from necessity the nice adaptations of structural conditions and habits to their numerous requirements in their struggle for existence. Mr. Millais has, in addition to his knowledge and love of nature and sport, a fine artistic sense and facility in depicting animal life, and these qualifications, added to his unusual opportunities for the study of his subject, make him eminently fit for his task.

Of the eleven different kinds of extinct British deer mentioned in the first chapter, the most interesting and perhaps the most numerous, especially in Ireland, was the Megaceros, or the Gigantic Irish Deer. Hundreds of heads of this magnificent animal and a few perfect skeletons are in existence. Mr. Williams of Dublin, who has been most successful in recovering the buried heads and horns of this great deer, uses for the purpose a probing iron about sixty feet in length; and the man who does the probing through the strata of peat, gravel, and clay to the lacustrine shell marl, where the horns are mostly found, is enabled from long practice to tell by the ring of the metal exactly the kind of substance with which the rod comes in contact. The megaceros has been confounded, by reason of its palmated horns, with the American moose, but, as Mr. Millais shows by a reconstructed one on p. 5, it was an entirely different and a much larger animal. The head of a megaceros, with a great number of exact measurements, is given on p. 8, showing a span from between both outside tips in a straight line of 9 feet 5 inches, which is much greater than that of any moose head.

To the red deer (*Cervus elaphus*), the most important existing British type, are devoted five of the succeeding chapters. The great differences between the park and wild deer in the form and size of the antlers, as well as in weights, are thoroughly discussed from the data contained in the numerous and continuous records of the chase and the great collections of horns which adorn many a hall and castle in Britain. The very strong superficial resemblance between some of the best stag-heads in Mr. Millais's book and those of the American wapiti will at once strike those familiar with the latter animal. The heads reproduced on pp. 126 and 131 are especially like those of the wapiti; the span of the larger one being 39¼ inches, length of right antler 39 inches, circumference between brow and bay 7¼ inches. A large wapiti head would have a length of antler of 50 to 55 inches, a span of 42 to 45 inches, and a girth of 10 to 12 inches. Palmated horns and horns with cups are becoming much rarer now than formerly among Scotch deer, and the size of the stags is decreasing. Mr. Millais mentions clean weights of something above 400 pounds, though weights of 300 pounds, with antlers bearing more than fourteen tines, at the present day would be thought very good. How much, therefore, the race must have degenerated in the last 200 years is shown in an article by Mr. Baillie-Grohman in the *Century* for July, 1897, entitled "Sports of the Seventeenth Century," in which he tells of stags killed by John George I., Elector of Saxony, weighing over 850 pounds, and that he shot 4,139 stags which scaled above 450 pounds each. The excellent picture, in this article, of the great banqueting hall of the Castle of Moritzburg shows 71 pairs of stag horns, not one of which carries fewer than twenty-four tines. On p. 88 of this book under notice the largest of these heads is shown. In 1693 a stag of twenty-six points, weighing 850 pounds, was shot by Princess Frederika of Saxe-Eisenach, and the head, with that of another nearly as large killed by Duchess Magdalen of Saxony in 1650, are, in the Moritzburg collection. Many of these large horns are cupped and palmated, showing that such forms were not at all uncommon in those days. It is impossible even to mention great numbers of notable British heads specified by Mr. Millais, but all goes to show that the stag is steadily deteriorating both in weight and in the size of his horns, and the historic great heads are becoming more and more precious as time goes on.

From the sportsman's point of view Mr. Millais's book is of great interest and fully justifies his addressing it to experts. The "Field Notes and Stalking Yarns" are very much above the usual level of such recountals, owing to the charm of their narration and the interspersed observations, which would occur to none but a keen and loving student of all living nature. Of course the opportunities for minute investigation of red deer in Britain are unexcelled. The animal, since the Conquest, has been the object of a kind of protection almost sacred in its form; and at the present time, outside of the hundreds of parks with their thousands of deer, there is in Scotland alone above 2,000,000 acres devoted to their

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maintenance, and about 5,000 stags are annually killed.

The chapters on fallow and roe deer are quite as good in their way as those on their more important cousin, but lack of space forbids going into their merits.

The illustrations, it is not too much to say, are far superior to any yet collected since Scrope's 'Art of Deerstalking' was published, and far more exhaustive than those of that great work. They are mostly by the author, and could be better only if they all were. Perhaps the most taking of these are the simple sketches of deer which, in their animation and lifelikeness, remind one of the admirable work of the late Charles St. John on the same subject. Those of "Stags Sparring" and "Stags Fighting," pp. 30 and 38, though not better than many others, are good examples of what animal drawing should be; and most interesting, though not more so than the accompanying text, is that entitled "Various British Animals Swimming, and their Positions in the Water," p. 44. It might be thought that the act of swimming would be substantially alike with all four-footed animals, while in fact it varies quite as much as their ways of travelling on land. No superficial observer would have noticed and illustrated this. The drawings by Sir Edwin Landseer are familiar from the reproduction of their subjects, and perhaps for that reason yield in specific interest to many of the other illustrations. Those in the chapter on roe deer cannot be too highly commended as a whole, and there are none that the most captious critic would want to exclude, though he might say a word of detraction of the frontispiece, which hardly needs the statement beneath it to make one think it was "made in Germany." The electrogravures are excellent in their subjects, and very fine in execution, and any one interested in British deer from the realistic or sentimental standpoint cannot do better than to buy (or, if he cannot afford this, to borrow) and enjoy Mr. Millais's beautiful volume.

Recollections of Aubrey de Vere. Edward Arnold. 1897.

At the outset our reminiscent poet distinguishes between "recollections" and an autobiography, and justly claims that what he has written makes good his title, it being less about himself than about other people. At the same time, his own doings and achievements are not allowed to wither in the shade. The chapters on his childhood and youth are interesting more as a picture of Irish life in general than for any of his own experiences or traits; but there are bits of vivid color here and there. The difference between his father and grandfather was very much like that between Frances Power Cobbe's relations of the same degree. Indeed, we find ourselves comparing Miss Cobbe's book with this at many different points. Grandfather de Vere had a history that could match the incidents of Miss Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee.' In a London auction-room he bought at haphazard an island in the Bristol Channel, paid for it by breeding rabbits on it, and retired to it whenever he was on bad terms with both the English and the Irish government, for it paid neither tax nor tithe, acknowledged neither King nor Parliament, nor any law of state or church. He lost a fortune by cards and then renounced them. He raised two companies of militia and gave a captain's commission to his son, a boy of five summers. This boy grew up to be the father of the present Aubrey de Vere, whose tender reverence for him is one of the most delightful features of his book. Like his son, he was a poet, and according to his son a good one, the opinion of competent judges being quoted to that effect, and the fact that, after twenty-eight years of absolute neglect, his "Mary Tudor," a drama, got some recognition.

In the "Youth" chapter there are valuable descriptions of Gerald Griffin and Sir Rowan Hamilton, with both of whom young De Vere was intimate. Some of the best stories are those which describe the course of justice—if it was justice—in the Irish courts. For O'Connell, De Vere has only praise, while conceding that both of the great parties in England wished Ireland well without any sympathetic understanding of her social and political condition. The beginnings of young De Vere's poetry were nearly simultaneous with those of Tennyson and Browning (he was born in 1814). Like Tennyson, he began by admiring Byron, and contracted "the Byronic sulk" which Wordsworth exorcised. He and his father used to read Keats, Shelley, and Landor by night to the music of an æolian harp. In one of these poetic raptures the boy took to a boat and floated all night long upon a lake, letting the wind and tide have their way with him. This looks as if the Byronic self-consciousness had outlasted "the Byronic sulk."

One chapter, "Old Times and New," describes a coaching drive which was full of incident and adventure, without being at all remarkable for the time of its occurrence. A sister's marriage in 1835 to Robert O'Brien suggests a history of the O'Brien family, which is proudly vaunted as descending from Brian the Great, King of all Ireland. Whether all the O'Briens draw their blood from this old King, we are not told. One of them, of his father's generation, was a distinct survival of the Irish chief. Another, Stafford O'Brien, did good service in the Crimea, especially among the cholera-stricken French, who seem to have had much the same name for Englishmen that Joan of Arc had and her people, for they called him "Ce cher Monsieur 'Damn me.'"

The chapter of Swiss travel is not sufficiently different from the run of such descriptions to require special comment, but the Irish traveller who thought the Alps did not compare with the mountains of Wicklow was beyond doubt a true patriot. In the Chamouni Valley he had counted only four mountains in three days, and in Wicklow he had counted eight in three hours. Going to England in 1841, De Vere had the fun—for it was fun—of travelling with O'Connell, of whose boisterous good nature we get an excellent account. One incident of this journey was a visit to Wordsworth, whose appreciation of the English mountains as compared with the Alps was not excelled by the Irishman's comparative appreciation of the mountains of Wicklow. Very precious to young De Vere was Wordsworth's praise of his father's sonnets as the best of the age. "I need not remind you," he added, "that in making such a remark one does not mean to institute anything in the way of a comparison between one's self and another writer." That was saving his own preëminence as by fire. Again, travelling on the Continent, De Vere had Henry Taylor for his companion, and he confirms all the good that we have heard of the author of "Philip Van Artevelde." In Froude's edition of Carlyle's 'Reminiscences,' Taylor appears as "a man of morbid vivacity in every sense of the word." It should have read "a man of marked veracity," and so he appears in these pages, yet not without much vivacity and the utmost kindliness.

The great Irish famine has a chapter to itself, in which a plea is put in for the Irish gentleman as not entirely recreant to his solemn trust; but that absenteeism was a frequent and appalling scandal De Vere does not deny. The reader will wish that he were more explicit and had told us what the "unproductive labor" was, and the "reproductive labor" in which the starving population were engaged under Government control.

Cardinal Newman and Cardinal Manning have each a chapter to themselves, yet little is added to the abundant knowledge of these men that we already have. We read of Newman as gliding into a room "with a gracious address that might have belonged to a youthful ascetic of the Middle Ages or a graceful and high-bred lady of our own days." At their first meeting Mr. de Vere was not a Roman Catholic, but he became one further on. Milnes wrote a reply to 'Tract 90.' Some one remarking to Whewell that he didn't know that Milnes had opinions on the subject, Whewell answered, "He has none, but he took a fancy to write a philosophic essay on the subject of the day; so he wrote what he thought a philosophic mind like Thirlwall's might think." Newman's change from Oxford to Dublin University was æsthetically a change of infinite diameters, and the picture of him carving meat for thirty hungry boys is one not soon to be forgotten. Newman's idea that of twenty definitions of infallibility several might be correct is of a piece with his general vagueness, so different from William George Ward's sharp definition. Woolner's compliment to Newman's bust was a striking one, and by no means flattering to busts that he had made of Newman's most distinguished contemporaries. "When I turn from Newman's head to theirs," he said, "they look *like vegetables*." There is no attempt to adjust the differences of Newman and Manning. Mr. de Vere's opinion of the latter is very different from Newman's and does not agree with that of Manning's great biography by Mr. Purcell. It is not Mr. de Vere's fashion to admire the celebrated people of his church by halves. At the end of his chapter on Manning, he reproduces a sonnet on him which for depth of bathos cannot be excelled. Nothing will satisfy him but to represent the Cardinal as a St. Thomas Aquinas and a Dante rolled into one. Carlyle's advice to Mr. de Vere to remain in the English Church because its face was "turned in the right direction," either was grimmest irony, or makes us wonder whether he was speaking truthfully when he was talking in this fashion, or when he was setting forth the "Exodus from Houndsditch" as the one thing needful.

Cabot's Discovery of North America. By G. E. Weare. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

Among Mr. Weare's illustrations is a view

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of Brandon Hill, with a part of ancient Bristol in the foreground. Although embedded in the text, it deserves to be made the frontispiece, for the author's purpose in writing so extensively as he does about the Cabots is not primarily to denounce Sebastian, or even to vindicate John, but to magnify the famous west-country seaport. He has already dealt with minor points in the archæology of Bristol. He now attacks the largest game which a Somersetshire antiquarian can start. Viewed purely from the standpoint of sport, the Cabot question, with its numerous and baffling difficulties, is indeed a noble quarry. Yet behind the obscurities arising from contemporary silence and contemporary lies, one fact is sure, viz., that John Cabot sailed from Bristol in May, 1497. He was supported by Bristol enterprise, and the expedition which disclosed a continent is fitly taken by Mr. Weare as the central episode of the local history. Macaulay's lively sketch of Bristol in his third chapter shows that the town was still great at the end of the seventeenth century. For over two hundred years it reaped direct benefit from the new fields of commerce which it was the first to open up.

In considering the value of the services which the Cabots and Bristol rendered to the cause of American discovery, one must dwell on a series of moot points. Among them the most notable are the circumstances under which the first voyage was made; the precise landfall; the achievements of Sebastian; and, finally, his moral character. The main outlines can be traced with tolerable certainty. Many interesting details for which there is some authority will probably continue to remain doubtful because the said authority is not good enough. An adventurous citizen of Venice, with head crammed full of Marco Polo's Cipango, Toscanelli's charts, and the success of Columbus, secures sanction of the English crown and aid in the second English seaport, finds land somewhere between Labrador and Halifax, returns, is a seven days' wonder, is partially rewarded, and then, after a second voyage, drops out of sight. Of his three sons authentically mentioned, one becomes a skilful navigator and an invcterate wirepuller. In a voluminous correspondence he ignores his father or appropriates his discoveries. After wearing the mantle of an undeserved respect for above three hundred years, and especially for the forty years succeeding the appearance of Biddle's monograph, he is at length stripped bare as Duessa. It is a long drop from a place beside Columbus and Magellan to the rank which Sebastian Cabot now holds.

Mr. Weare by no means confines himself to the broad features at which we have just glanced. He begins with that Egyptian expedition to the "unknown Balsam Land of Punt," which is described in the inscription at Deir-al-Bahari, and ambles along down to the Cabots via Plato, Ignatius Donnelly, Strabo, the early mediæval Orientalists, and the Island of the Seven Cities. The chief fault we find with him is that of extreme garrulity. What he has to say about his avowed subject might easily be compressed into one-half the number of pages which the present volume contains. He has already before him in the field Dr. Winsor, Mr. Harrisse, and Dr. S. E. Dawson, all of whom write with full knowledge of the recent and determining evidence that has been drawn from Spanish and Italian archives. A comparative study of the testimony in the case, by itself, is needed much more than a general account of attempts to reach the Indies by sailing west, biographical sketches of Gasparo Contarini, Richard Hakluyt, etc. We refer, of course, to the matter with which Mr. Weare embroiders his main theme. He has collected the wherewithal to supply a very neat essay, but leaves one to spend a good deal of time in exploring digressions before one reaches what one is after.

Assuming that the reader is in no particular hurry, he will find himself Mr. Weare's debtor in the end. Besides being a first-hand authority wherever Bristol is concerned, he has prepared a useful anthology of the sources relating to the Cabots. One of his special contentions is that the ship in which John Cabot sailed when he sighted land was the *Mathew*. His authority is a chronicle once in the possession of the Fust family, and destroyed by fire in 1860. Fortunately, one of its owners had caused a collation of entries to be made with Barrett's and Seyer's Histories of Bristol, "with a view to the extraction from the Chronicle of all the entries which were yet unpublished, or which contained information supplemental to any matter or event already published in either of those histories." Mr. Harrisse impugns the authenticity of the original chronicle, and conjectures that it was one of Chatterton's forgeries. It is obvious that the phrase "the land of America was found by the Merchants of Bristow in a shippe of Bristowe, called the *Mathew*," could not have been used in 1497. On the other hand, a forger would have avoided so elementary a slip. We mention the difference of opinion between Mr. Weare and Mr. Harrisse because the former's last word has been reprinted from *Notes and Queries* and put in circulation. At least Mr. Harrisse makes a bad guess in connecting Chatterton and the Fust family without express evidence. Mr. Weare catches him here much as Dr. Dawson catches him on the landfall question. Mr. Harrisse's opinion is in favor of Cape Chidley, because of the multitude of cod thereabouts. Cabot landed on the 24th of June, and the cod do not reach Cape Chidley till or later than the middle of August!

While we have found it necessary to dwell on Mr. Weare's circuitous manner of reaching his goal, we should like to commend the thoroughness of research and breadth of outlook to which his prolixity is probably due. The subject involves treatment of many minute questions, hair-splitting even, and we are not sorry to find that one who must have been sorely tempted to emphasize its Bristolian aspects should be able to pass from the antiquarian's level to the higher ground of historical disquisition.

The Blazon of Episcopacy. By Rev. W. K. Riland Bedford. Second Edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897. 4to; pp. 274.

To an American reader this handsome volume is simply inexplicable. It contains a chronological list of all the archbishops and bishops of the Episcopal Church in England and Wales, and of their predecessors in these sees in Catholic times. There are added engraved coats-of-arms, apocryphal and real, of these prelates, an ordinary of the arms, and an index. Omitting the early coats, assigned later to persons who lived before the use of coat-armor, this record would seem to prove that no bishop has been appointed outside of the class of the gentry. In other words, it would show that while soldiers, sailors, lawyers, and statesmen in England have risen from the ranks, the higher clergy has constituted a body of strictly high-class Brahmins. Of course this cannot be true, for great ability has forced plebeians through the path of scholarships, tutorships, fellowships, and other ways into high ecclesiastic preferment. Thackeray is a sufficient authority for his sketch of a university snob—Crump, President of St. Boniface, who narrowly escaped the bench of bishops: "When the allied monarchs came down, and were made Doctors of the University, a breakfast was given at St. Boniface; on which occasion Crump allowed the Emperor Alexander to walk before him, but took the *pas* himself of the King of Prussia and Prince Blücher." "He does not disguise his own origin, but brags of it with considerable self-gratulation. 'I was a charity-boy,' says he; 'see what I am now; the greatest Greek scholar of the greatest College of the greatest University of the greatest Empire in the world.'" Yet if Crump became a bishop, we presume his coat-of-arms would have been issued in order to take its place in the 'Blazon of Episcopacy.' It seems, indeed, strange that such worldly gewgaws should be so exclusively affected by clergymen.

Mr. Bedford's book was first issued in 1858, and this sumptuous edition proves that it meets some need. It shows a great outlay of time and work, and from an heraldic point is entirely satisfactory. It will be, for example, of service in identifying the founders of churches and tombs, and will gratify many clergymen who take a languid interest in archæology. But we can hardly expect to see in the next edition a section devoted to the arms of the bishops of the Episcopal Church in the United States, unless the Church of England shall relent. In which case, doubtless, Garter will supply the necessary shields from the date of Bishop Seabury, as authentic and satisfactory as those of their English brethren.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. The Hermit of Nottingham. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Aitken, G. A. Sheridan's The Critic. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Alexander, Mrs. Barbara, Lady's Maid and Peeress. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Allen, Grant. The Evolution of the Idea of God. Henry Holt & Co. $3.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development. Macmillan. $2.60.
Balfour, M. C. The Fall of the Sparrow. Putnams. $1.
Bangs, J. K. Paste Jewels. Harpers. $1.
Barnard, J. H. The Naval Militiaman's Guide. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.25.
Benning, Howe. The Benhurst Club; or, The Doings of Some Girls. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Besant, Sir W., and Pollock, W. The Charm, and Other Drawing-Room Plays. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
Besant, Sir Walter. A Fountain Sealed. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
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